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# OUTLINES OF HISTORY,

COMPILED FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES

BY PIERCE C. GRACE.

A New Edition

CAREFULLY REVISED, AND CONTINUED TO THE YEAR 1867.

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# PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

In preparing this little volume for the press, the compiler was influenced by three motives: recreation, friendship, and a sincere desire to supply a want much felt in our schools and academies. Devoting to the undertaking only his evening hours of leisure, he felt himself rewarded by the reflection, that, in addition to the relaxation of mind it afforded, he was obliging a friend, and, at the same time, conferring a substantial benefit upon others.

In the progress of the work, the compiler has been aided, in some degree, by the labours of those who have supplied the schools with larger and more detailed class-books of history; but, as a general rule, he has consulted, with much care, the standard authorities, and spared no pains to invest the "Outlines" with the character of unquestionable authenticity.

The work is intended only as a first-class book of history. It embodies a complete and correct system of chronology (a feature very much neglected in the generality of our school histories), and is so arranged as to be easily comprehended by the young.

The compiler confidently commits his little volume to the public, and particularly to the favourable consideration of the teachers of schools and the heads of academies; and trusts to find in their approbation that his labours may not prove altogether useless. He has no interest in the publication further than this.

If the work, by its success, shall benefit his friend, and prove useful as a medium of instruction to the young, the compiler asks no other reward; and will rest satisfied with reflecting that he has been enabled to devote hours, which he might have uselessly employed, to so good and substantial a purpose.

St. Louis, July, 1842.

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# PREFACE TO THE NEW EDITION.

THE "Outlines of History" having received the highest testimony of public approbation during a long series of years, in the course of which the annual issue has amounted to several thousands, the publishers have deemed it their duty to render the book in every respect worthy of its popularity.

For this purpose, they have submitted it to a careful revision, and have had the Modern History continued by a competent hand down to the year 1867, adding considerably to the matter, though not apparently much to the bulk, of the work.

The vast importance of many recent events, and the extraordinary changes which have taken place in the relative position of several states, have rendered this addition absolutely indispensable. Some nations have risen to great power, and others have been crumbling into dust. Empires have been created, and some of them have fallen back into decay; and the effects produced upon states and upon society at large have been of the very utmost interest and importance.

Care has been taken that all these important changes should be brought under the student's eye. The sketch of Irish history has been entirely re-written, to adapt it to recent researches, and embrace within so limited a space the most accurate knowledge on the subject. The great events of recent years in America, as well as in Europe, have been duly described, and an historical sketch of the rising countries of Australia and New Zealand has been added.

An Appendix, containing a great deal of valuable information in a very small space, has been subjoined; and it is hoped that the book will be found to have been considerably improved in many respects.

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# INTRODUCTION.

1. History is a record or narrative of past events. With respect to time, it is divided into ancient history, history of the middle ages, and modern history.

2. Ancient history is the history of the world from the creation to the extinction of the Western Empire of the Romans, 476 A.C.

3. The history of the middle ages is an account of events comprising a period of nearly a thousand years, from the extinction of the Western Empire of the Romans, 476 A.C., to that of the Eastern Empire, 1453 A.C.

4. Modern history is the history of the world from the extinction of the Eastern Empire of the Romans, 1453 A.C., to the present time.

5. Ancient history is distinguished by the rise and fall of the four great empires of Assyria, or Babylon; Persia; Greece, or Macedonia; and Rome.

6. The story of the middle ages is remarkable for the origin and progress of Mahometanism, the prevalence of the feudal system, the Crusades, and chivalry.

7. Modern history is distinguished by the discovery of America, the Protestant Reformation, the invention of the art of printing, the revival of letters, and progress in the sciences and useful arts; also for the American and French Revolutions.

8. History is also divided, as regards the nature of its subjects, into sacred and profane, ecclesiastical and civil.

9. Sacred history is the narrative of events, contained in the Bible, relating chiefly to the Israelites and the dealings of God with that people. Profane history is the history of the ancient heathen nations.

10. Ecclesiastical history is the history of the Church of Christ, from its establishment to the present time.

11. Civil history is the history of the various nations, states, kingdoms, empires, and republics that mankind have established in the world, containing an account of their wars, revolutions, and changes.

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12. Sacred history commences at the earliest period of time, recounting the creation of the world, the fall of man, the deluge, the dispersion of mankind, the establishment of the different nations, and the selection by God of Israelites as his peculiar people.

13. Profane history is involved in great confusion and uncertainty. Save what is recorded in the Bible, very little is known of the history of the world during the long period of upwards of three thousand years, from the creation to the year 713 before the birth of Christ.

14. The Greek writer, Herodotus, is the earliest profane historian whose works have been preserved. He lived about 444 years B.C., and his history, relating to the Egyptians, Persians, Greeks, Ionians, Lydians, Lycians, and Macedonians, reaches back to the year 713 B.C.

15. With the exception of occasional obscurity, the history of the middle ages is comparatively well known.

16. Modern history, its records being well and fully preserved, is, of course, best known.

## QUESTIONS ON INTRODUCTION.

1. What is history? How is it divided?
2. What is ancient history?
3. What is the history of the middle ages?
4. What is modern history?
5. By what is ancient history distinguished?
6. For what is the history of the middle ages remarkable?
7. By what is modern history distinguished?
8. How is history divided with regard to subjects?
9. What is sacred history? What is profane history?
10. What is ecclesiastical history?
11. What is civil history?
12. What is said of sacred history?
13. What is said of profane history?
14. Who is the earliest profane historian?
15. What is said of the history of the middle ages?
16. What of modern history?

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# OUTLINES OF HISTORY

## PART FIRST.

## ANCIENT HISTORY.

### CHAPTER I.

THE CREATION—THE DELUGE—THE DISPERSION OF MANKIND—AND THE CALLING OF ABRAHAM.

1. THE Creation, according to the usually received computation, took place about 4004 years before the birth of Christ. The only authentic account of this stupendous event is contained in the Bible. This account, which, from its sacred writer, Moses, is called the Mosaic account, informs us that God created the universe, and all things therein, in six days; that on the sixth day the Almighty made the body of man from the dust of the earth, and breathed into it the breath of life; and that this man was called Adam, and was appointed, by his Divine Master, the Lord of the animal creation. God rested on the seventh day, which he sanctified and ordained to be observed by his creatures as a day of rest and devotion to him.

2. God, seeing that "it was not good for man to be alone," cast Adam into a deep sleep, and taking from his side a rib, formed of it the first woman, who was called Eve, and gave her to Adam as a companion—thus establishing the sacred institution of marriage.



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3. Adam and Eve were placed in a terrestrial paradise, called the Garden of Eden, which, from the most probable accounts, appears to have been situated in a part of Asia Minor, since called Mesopotamia, lying between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates.

4. God, for the purpose of testing their obedience, commanded them to abstain from tasting the fruit of a particular tree in the Garden of Eden, under penalty of death. But Satan, in the form of a serpent, having persuaded Eve to transgress this command, and she having induced Adam to participate in her guilt, God banished them from the delights of Paradise; and they and their posterity were for ever after subject to death, and all the moral and physical evils which have since that time afflicted mankind.

5. But, in the execution of this just punishment on our first parents, God did not leave man without the hope of regaining his forfeited favour. He promised him a future Redeemer, who would crush and overcome the designs of the devil, and make an atonement which would satisfy his infinite justice—a promise which clearly referred to the person of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ.

6. Man, having disobeyed God, and fallen from the favoured state in which he had been placed, became in his nature altered and depraved. One of the first fruits of this depravity was the murder of Abel by his brother Cain; and subsequently, such was the widespread impiety and wickedness of mankind for a long series of years, that God, justly provoked, determined to cut off the human race, with the exception of Noe and his family, by a universal deluge.

7. Noe, who, by his justice and piety, had won the favour of the Almighty, was warned by God of his determination, and commanded to construct a large vessel, called an ark, capable of sustaining himself and family, and pairs of all kinds of birds, beasts, and reptiles.

8. When the ark was completed, and Noe with his

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family, eight in number, and a pair of each species of birds, beasts, and reptiles, had entered it, God caused the earth to be so deluged by rain from the skies, and by breaking down the boundaries of the seas, that every creature without the ark perished. This event occurred in the year 2384 B.C.

9. The ark, after floating on the waters 150 days, rested on a mountain in Armenia, called Ararat, and there remained until the waters had subsided, when it was abandoned, its inhabitants having dwelt in it one year and ten days.

10. About one hundred years after the Deluge, the posterity of Noe, having become numerous, conceived the design of building, upon a vast plain called Shinar, a city, with a tower which should reach the skies, in order that they might be secure against any future deluge, and acquire fame in after times. But God, having designed to form mankind into different nations, and being displeased with their presumption, interrupted them in the midst of their vast undertaking, by confusing their language in such a manner as compelled them to relinquish their work, and to separate and become dispersed. The city and tower, which they were thus compelled to leave unfinished, were called Babel, or *Confusion*. 2247 B.C.

11. After this dispersion, the three great portions of the eastern continent were settled by the three sons of Noe. Japheth settled Europe; Sem, Asia; and Cham, Africa.

12. The ninth lineal descendant of Sem was Abraham. He was born in Chaldea; but God intending him to be the progenitor of a great nation, and of the promised Redeemer of man, separated him from the other descendants of Sem, and placed him in the land of Chanaan, which was appointed to be the inheritance of his posterity, who, in the persons of Jacob and his numerous offspring, became the heads of the twelve tribes of Israel. The calling of Abraham occurred 1921 B.C.

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QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER I.

1. When was the world created? Where is the account of this event to be found, and what is that account
2. How was woman created?
3. Where were Adam and Eve placed after their creation?
4. How came man to be banished from Paradise, and what were the consequences?
5. What promise did God make to man, and to what did the promise refer?
6. What is said of mankind after the fall?
7. What warning and command did God give to Noe?
8. What occurred after the completion of the ark? When did this happen?
9. Where did the ark rest, and when was it abandoned?
10. What happened about 100 years after the Deluge?
11. What happened after the dispersion of mankind?
12. Who is Abraham, and what is said of him?

## CHAPTER II.

### THE ISRAELITES, OR JEWS.

1. THE Israelites were descended from Abraham, by his son Isaac, and derived their name from Jacob, the grandson of Abraham, who was surnamed Israel.

2. The Israelites were also called Jews, which name they derived from Juda, one of the twelve sons of Jacob, he being the patriarch of the first of the twelve tribes.

3. They are peculiarly distinguished as being the chosen people of God, and the only nation of antiquity which possessed a knowledge of the true God and true religion by means of a divine revelation.

4. Their ancient history is found in the Bible, and in the works of Josephus, a Jewish historian, who

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lived at the time of the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans, under Titus, A.C. 70.

5. Jacob and his twelve sons, with their families, moved from Chanaan to Egypt, and, in process of time, their posterity, having become numerous and powerful, became an object of fear to the rulers of that country.

6. The Egyptian king, Pharao, for the purpose of retarding the progress of the Israelites in power and numbers, commenced a systematic course of cruelty and oppression, and reduced them to the most abject slavery. B.C. 1580.

7. Nothing, however, could prevent their increase; and finally, after a residence in Egypt of 215 years, and after suffering the greatest extremities and unheard-of cruelties, God raised them up a deliverer in the person of Moses, the great Hebrew lawgiver, who, miraculously assisted, led the Israelites from Egypt. B.C. 1491.

8. They were condemned, however, on account of their impiety and rebellion, to wander forty years in the wilderness; and afterwards took possession of the land of Chanaan under the direction of Josue. 1451 B.C.

9. The Israelites, during 356 years after their entrance into Chanaan, were governed by a succession of judges, though the form of their government was essentially a theocracy, or the immediate government of God.

10. Being dissatisfied with this kind of government, they desired a king. This was granted them through the administration of Samuel, the last of the judges, and Saul was anointed the first king of the Israelites. B.C. 1079.

11. David succeeded Saul. He was one of the most pious, warlike, and prosperous kings that ruled in Israel. He enlarged the boundaries of his kingdom by conquests, and systematized and built up the religious institutions of his country.

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12. David was succeeded by his son Solomon, whose reign was a period of peace and prosperity. Solomon was the wealthiest and the wisest monarch of his time. His reign was particularly distinguished by the building of the celebrated Temple of Jerusalem. This magnificent structure was completed in about seven years, and was dedicated about the year 1004 B.C.

13. Roboam, the son of Solomon, succeeded his father. During his reign ten of the twelve tribes of Israel revolted from his authority, and two kingdoms were formed; one styled the kingdom of Juda, including also the tribe of Benjamin; and the other, the kingdom of Israel, consisting of the other ten tribes.

14. The kingdom of Israel was governed by a succession of idolatrous kings during the space of 254 years, after which it was overthrown by the Assyrians, under their king Salmanaser, who led the greater part of the inhabitants into captivity. B.C. 721. They were dispersed throughout Assyria, and never more returned.

15. The kingdom of Juda, after the revolt of the ten tribes, continued to be governed by kings of the family of David for 387 years. During the reign of Sedecias, the last king, Jerusalem was taken after a twelve months' siege, by Nabuchodonosor, King of Babylon. The City and Temple were razed to their foundations. The family of Sedecias were put to death. He himself, his eyes having been cruelly put out, was carried, with his miserable subjects, captive to Babylon. B.C. 606.

16. The Jews were held in captivity in Babylon for 70 years, at the end of which time Cyrus the Great, King of Persia, having overthrown the Babylonian Empire, published an edict, allowing them to return and rebuild the City and Temple of Jerusalem. Cyrus restored to them all the vessels of the Temple which Nabuchodonosor had taken from it, and even furnished them means to rebuild the Temple. B.C. 536.

17. From this period the Jews were successively under the dominion of the Persians, the Macedonians, and Ptolemies (kings of Egypt), the Seleucidæ (kings

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of Syria), and the Machabees (Jewish princes), until they were finally conquered by the Romans under Pompey. B.C. 63.

18. In the 70th year after Christ, Jerusalem was taken by the Romans under Titus, and utterly destroyed, according to the prophecy of our Saviour; and since that event the Jews have been dispersed throughout all parts of the world.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER II.

1. From whom were the Israelites descended, and what is the origin of their name?
2. Whence did they derive the name of Jews?
3. How are they distinguished?
4. Where is their ancient history found?
5. What is said of Jacob and his twelve sons, and their posterity?
6. What is said of King Pharao, and where did he live?
7. How and by whom were the Israelites liberated, and when did this occur?
8. What took place afterwards?
9. How were they governed after their entrance into Chanaan?
10. Who was the first king, and when was he anointed?
11. Who succeeded Saul, and what is said of him?
12. Who succeeded David? What is said of Solomon?
13. Who succeeded Solomon? What occurred during his reign?
14. What is said of the kingdom of Israel?
15. What is said of the kingdom of Juda?
16. What took place afterwards?
17. What was their condition after their return?
18. What happened in the 70th year after Christ?

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## CHAPTER III.

### EGYPT.

1. It is much to be regretted that our knowledge of the ancient history of Egypt is very limited. We have derived from that country no historical writings; and, save what can be gathered from the works of other nations, and the glorious monuments of former opulence and splendour which have existed up to the present time, the wonder and admiration of every age, and to which we should add the hieroglyphic inscriptions with which these monuments abound, nothing remains to attest the ancient glory of this celebrated kingdom.

2. Enough, however, can be gleaned from these to render it certain that Egypt was among the earliest civilized nations of antiquity, and so far surpassed her contemporaries in the attainments of the arts and sciences and of literature, as to become the resort of the illustrious men of other nations, and the most renowned school of wisdom and politics. This country has been justly styled the cradle of the sciences.

3. The foundation of the kingdom of Egypt was laid by Menes—called in Scripture Mesraim—the second son of Cham. He was the first monarch, and is said to have built the famous city of Memphis. B.C. 2188.

4. After the death of Menes, the land was divided among his children, thus erecting four states—Thebes, Thin, Memphis, and Tanis—which, after a separate existence of many years, became reunited under one monarch.

5. The reigns of Menes and his descendants were generally peaceful and conducive to the improvement and civilization of the people. During the reign

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however, of Timaus, the last of them, the government was overthrown by a barbarous people from the east, who, in the persons of their sovereigns, called the Shepherd Kings, ruled the country for upwards of two hundred years.

6. The third race of Egyptian kings consisted of the princes of the house of the Pharaos, who governed the kingdom during the residence of the Israelites in Egypt, and up to the time of Cambyses, King of Persia. This monarch invaded and conquered the country, and annexed it to his own dominions. 525 B.C.

7. During the reign of these three races of kings, Egypt had steadily advanced in the arts of civilized life, and became the most renowned country of the world. Yet the Egyptians were not remarkable as a warlike people, apparently cultivating alone the more enduring pursuits of peace. Sesostris, who has been styled the Magnificent, was the only king of that country renowned as a great conqueror. He made the conquest of Lybia, marched through Asia, invaded Europe, and subdued the Thracians. After his return from these warlike expeditions, he devoted his time to the encouragement of the fine arts, and the general improvement of his kingdom.

8. After the conquest of the country by Cambyses, Egypt being reduced to a province of Persia, the progress of the people declined as rapidly as it had advanced, until Alexander the Great wrested the country from the power of Persia, and incorporated it with his vast dominions. B.C. 330.

9. After the death of Alexander, the great empire he had built up was dismembered and portioned out to his generals. Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy Lagus, the head of the last race of Egyptian kings, known as the Ptolemies. B.C. 312.

10. During the reigns of Ptolemy Lagus and his son and successor, Ptolemy Philadelphus, Egypt rapidly regained her ancient lustre, and attained a position in

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the arts, in science, and in commerce which at that time eclipsed every other portion of the world.

11. The Ptolemies reigned in Egypt nearly three hundred years, till, during the reign of the celebrated Queen Cleopatra, the last of that famous line of sovereigns, the fate of the kingdom was sealed by the results of the battle of Actium, and the country was reduced to a province of the Roman Empire. B.C. 31.

12. Egypt is this day celebrated on account of the numerous remains of former splendour which attest its great antiquity and early attainments in the arts. The pyramids, obelisks, catacombs, and the magnificent ruins of the ancient temples and cities, excite the wonder and admiration of the traveller. Modern art would in vain attempt to imitate these vast works. Their antiquity is so great, that no date can be fixed to their construction.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER III.

1. What is said of the ancient history of Egypt, and what are the sources of our knowledge?
2. What can be gleaned from these sources?
3. By whom was the kingdom of Egypt founded, and when?
4. What happened after the death of Menes?
5. What is said of the reigns of Menes and his descendants? Who next governed the kingdom?
6. What was the third race of Egyptian kings? What ended their dominion?
7. What is said of Egypt during the three races of kings? What is said of Sesostris?
8. What is said of Egypt after the conquest of Cambyses?
9. What happened after the death of Alexander?
10. What is said of Egypt under the first Ptolemies?
11. How long did the race of Ptolemies reign, and with whom did it end?
12. For what is Egypt now celebrated?

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## CHAPTER IV.

### THE PHŒNICIANS.

1. THE Phœnicians, styled in Scripture Chanaanites, inhabited the part of Asia bordering on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea. The principal cities, Tyre and Sidon, were perhaps the most ancient mentioned in history, and in remote ages they were celebrated as the most considerable seats of commerce in the world.

2. Less is known of their history, however, than of that of the Egyptians; and with the exception of a few doubtful fragments from the history of the Phœnician writer, Sanconiathon, and occasional reference to them in the Bible and by the Greek historians, there is nothing which throws light upon the annals of this remarkable and enterprising people.

3. They were certainly among the earliest civilized nations, and the world is indebted to them for some of the most valuable inventions and discoveries. They carried the art of navigation to great perfection for the age in which they lived, and invented letters, glass, purple, and coinage. Although the invention of letters has been also ascribed to the Egyptians, yet it appears that the Phœnicians were the first to impart the benefits of that great invention to the other nations—Cadmus, a Phœnician, having first introduced a knowledge of letters into Greece.

4. Besides this, those early pioneers of civilization explored the whole extent of the Mediterranean Sea, planting colonies in Cyprus, Rhodes, Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain, and even visited the shores of Ireland, where, it is said, they also left a colony. Dido, a Phœnician princess, the sister of Pygmalion, King of Tyre, founded the celebrated city of Carthage.

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QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IV.

1. What part of the world did the Phœnicians inhabit? What is said of their principal cities?
2. What is said of their history?
3. What further is said of them, and for what is the world indebted to them?
4. For what, besides, were the Phœnicians remarkable?

## CHAPTER V.

### ASSYRIA AND BABYLON.

1. ASSYRIA was the first of the four great empires of antiquity. Its name is derived from Assur, the second son of Sem, and the grandson of Noe, who laid the foundation of the empire, B.C. 2229. Assur built the city of Ninive, which afterwards became the capital of the empire.

2. About the same time Nimrod, who was the grandson of Cham, and the great-grandson of Noe, laid the foundation of Babylon. Nimrod, who is generally supposed to be the same as the Belus spoken of by profane historians, is said to have been the first person of the earth who assumed the rank of king. He is described in Scripture as one "mighty on the earth."

3. The early accounts of Assyria and Babylon are involved in much doubt and perplexity. It is generally supposed, however, that they existed as distinct and separate kingdoms for several years, down to the time of Ninus.

4. Ninus, the successor of Assur in the kingdom of Assyria, who is represented as a great and powerful sovereign, seized upon Chaldea and Babylon, and thus

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united the two kingdoms in one empire, the extent of which he greatly increased by other conquests. The seat of the empire was fixed at Ninive, which Ninus greatly enlarged and beautified.

5. Ninus was succeeded in the government of the empire by his wife, Semiramis, a woman of great beauty, ambition, and talents. She governed with great energy and courage, improved and regulated the internal affairs of her empire, and so enlarged and adorned Babylon, that it became the most magnificent city of the world. After a splendid reign of upwards of forty years, Semiramis abdicated, leaving the empire to her son, Ninyas. B.C. 1965.

6. From the reign of Ninyas to that of Sardanapalus there is a great gap of several centuries in the history of Assyria and Babylon, there being no reliable accounts remaining of the empire during that long period.

7. Sardanapalus was a most effeminate and voluptuous monarch. His reign was inglorious, and his life shameful. At length, Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, a priest of Babylon, determining to end his effeminate rule, excited a rebellion against him. A great battle was fought: and Sardanapalus being defeated, shut himself up in his palace, which he fired, and he himself, his women, and his treasures were consumed in the flames. B.C. 840.

8. After the death of Sardanapalus the empire became dismembered and divided into three kingdoms —Media, Babylon, and Assyria. Arbaces assumed the sovereignty of the first; Belesis, of the second; and Phul, of the third.

9. The successors of Phul in Assyria were, 1st, Tiglath-pi-le-ser; 2nd, Salmanaser, who put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the inhabitants captive; 3rd, Sennacherib, who besieged Jerusalem in the time of Ezechias, but was defeated by the interposition of God, who in one night scattered and destroyed his immense army; 4th, Asarhaddon, who de-

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feated Manasse, King of Juda, and carried him captive to his dominions.

10. After the death of Asarhaddon, Nabuchodonosor, King of Babylon, aided by Cyaxares, King of Media, besieged and utterly destroyed the city of Ninive, overthrew the Assyrian monarchy, and made Babylon the seat of his empire.

11. Nabuchodonosor I. was succeeded by his son, Nabuchodonosor II., who took the city of Jerusalem, and carried the Jews captive to Babylon. B.C. 606.

12. Nabuchodonosor II. was succeeded by Baltassar, a prince who justly incurred the displeasure of the Almighty by his impiety. God raised up a deliverer for his chosen people, then held in captivity, in the person of Cyrus the Great, King of Persia. Whilst Baltassar was feasting and rioting in Babylon, Cyrus, who had besieged the city for two years without success, conceived the extraordinary plan of turning the river Euphrates, which ran through the city, from its course, thus making a channel for his army to pass beneath the walls. The plan succeeded; the city was taken; Baltassar perished, and Babylonia became a province of Persia. B.C. 538.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER V.

1. What is said of the Assyrian Empire? When and by whom was it founded?
2. When and by whom was Babylon founded? What is said of Nimrod?
3. What is said of the early history of Assyria and Babylon?
4. Who was Ninus? How were the kingdoms of Assyria and Babylon united?
5. Who was Semiramis, and what is said of her?
6. What is said of the history of Assyria and Babylon aft the reign of Ninyas?
7. What was the character of Sardanapalus? What occurred during his reign?
8. What happened after his death?

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9. Who were the successors of Phul in the kingdom of Assyria?
10. What happened after the death of Asarhaddon?
11. Who succeeded Nabuchodonosor I.?
12. Who succeeded Nabuchodonosor II.? What was the character of Baltassar? How was Babylon taken?

## CHAPTER VI.

### PERSIA.

1. THE second of the four celebrated empires of ancient times was Persia. Originally an inconsiderable kingdom, it occupied so insignifrcant a position, and the few accounts we have of it are so clouded by doubt and mingled with fable, that, previous to the time of Cyrus the Great, its history presents little or nothing of any importance. It was originally called Elam; and the inhabitants, who were descendants of Sem, bore the name of Elamites.

2. Cyrus, surnamed the Great, succeeded his father Cambyses to the throne of Persia, and commenced a splendid and victorious reign. By a brilliant train of conquests he laid the foundation, and by a wise and just administration built up and consolidated, the great Persian Empire. Succeeding in right of his uncle, Cyaxares II., to the throne of Media, that country became a portion of his dominions. He also subjected to his power, by conquest, Babylonia, Lydia, Asia Minor, Assyria, and Arabia. It has been seen that Egypt was afterwards added to these by his successor, Cambyses the Younger.

3. Cyrus is celebrated both in profane and sacred history, and his character comes to us adorned with all the traits which should distinguish a good and great sovereign. His character, as portrayed by the

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pen of Xenophon, is that of a magnanimous prince, a wise ruler, and a heroic warrior; and the accounts we have of him in Scripture, particularly his humane liberation and treatment of the Jews, go far to confirm the truth of the description.

4. Cyrus was succeeded by his son, Cambyses the Younger, whose character was very unlike that of his father. He is represented as a cruel and remorseless tyrant. His principal exploit was the conquest of Egypt. On his death the throne was usurped by Smerdis, who, after a reign of a few months, having been assassinated, was succeeded by Darius Hystaspes.

5. From the reign of Darius Hystaspes, 490 B.C., to the overthrow of the empire by Alexander the Great, 330 B.C., the history of Persia is intimately connected with that of Greece. Darius invaded Greece with a large army, and was defeated at Marathon.

6. Darius was succeeded by his son, Xerxes, who made the second invasion of Greece. He also was utterly defeated. He was succeeded by Artaxerxes I., who reigned long and peacefully.

7. The other two principal sovereigns were—Artaxerxes II., during whose reign Xenophon made the famous retreat, with 10,000 Greeks, through a hostile country, 1,600 miles in extent; and Darius Codomanus, the last sovereign of the Persian Empire, who was defeated by Alexander the Great. With him the empire terminated. 330 B.C.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VI.

1. What is said of Persia and its early history?
2. What is related of Cyrus the Great?
3. What is the account we have of his character?
4. Who succeeded Cyrus? What was the character of Cambyses?
5. What is said of the history of Persia, from the time of Darius?
6. Who succeeded Darius?
7. Who were the other two principal sovereigns?

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# CHAPTER VII.

## GREECE—SECTION I.

*From the Earliest Accounts of the Country to the First Persian War.* 490 B.C.

1. GREECE was the most celebrated country of antiquity. Small and inconsiderable as it was in extent, it has exercised an influence over the progress of mankind, in civilization, art, science, and literature, which is still felt, and will continue to be felt to the end of time.

2. Forming a peninsula, in the south-eastern extremity of Europe, it was bounded on all sides by water, excepting on the north, where it was bounded by Macedonia and Epirus. The latter kingdoms may be considered as forming a portion of ancient Greece, as they were inhabited by people of similar origin, language, and religion. The Greeks, however, did not recognize them as part of their body, considering them as barbarous, and despising them because they retained the rude monarchical government, so different from the republics which, for the most part, constituted the Grecian Confederacy.

3. Greece was originally called Hellas, and its inhabitants Hellenes. The aboriginal inhabitants, who are generally considered as descendants of Japheth, son of Noe, are described as being extremely barbarous, wandering in woods, without any form of government; clothing themselves with the skins of beasts; living on fruit and raw flesh, and even devouring the enemies they slew in battle.

4. Such was the character of the people when the Phœnicians and Egyptians planted their colonies in Greece, and introduced the rudiments of civilization. Sicyon, the most ancient city, was founded by Ægilaus; Argos, a short time afterwards (1857 B.C.), was



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founded by Inachus, the Phœnician; and Athens, which has been so famous in history, was founded by Cecrops, the Egyptian. 1556 B.C.

5. The history of Greece may be divided into two general periods—1st, the period of uncertain history, extending from the earliest accounts to the first Persian war, 490 B.C.; 2nd, the period of authentic history, extending from the first Persian war to the subjugation of Greece by the Romans, 146 B.C.

6. The first division, which forms the subject of this section, reckoning from the foundation of Sicyon, the most ancient city of Greece, embraces about 1,600 years, which long period is so involved in obscurity and fable, that but little of it is known with certainty.

7. At a very early period the Greeks instituted the Olympic, Isthmian, Pythian, and Nemean Games, which were frequented by the people from all parts of the country, and were celebrated, not only by various athletic exercises, but also by contests between poets, orators, artists, philosophers, and musicians. These public games, where rewards and public honours were conferred upon the victors, exercised a most beneficial influence over the spirit of the people, and tended greatly towards the formation of a national character.

8. The Amphyctionic Council was also a very early institution of the Greeks. Greece being divided into a number of small, independent states, differing from each other in form of government, and the character and manners of the people, it was early found important that, for the purpose of their mutual defence, they should be united in a confederacy. Hence they established the Council of the Amphyctions, which was composed of deputies from several states, and usually met twice a year.

9. The first great enterprise of the Greeks was the Argonautic expedition, the true history of which is almost entirely obscured by the fabulous accounts given of it. The Argonauts, commanded by Jason, are said to have sailed from Iolchos, in Greece, to

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Colchis, on the Euxine Sea, for the purpose of recovering the golden fleece of a ram which originally belonged to their country.

10. There is no doubt that this expedition was a real event, and undertaken, it is supposed, for both military-and mercantile purposes. The object signified by the "golden fleece" was, in all probability, to open the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and plant an establishment on its coast. The Argonauts were guided in their voyage by the astronomer Chiron. The expedition took place 1263 B.C.

11. The most celebrated event in this portion of the history of Greece is the Trojan war, which rests wholly on the authority of Homer, and forms the subject of his great poem, the Iliad.

12. According to Homer, Paris, the son of Priam, King of Troy, visited Menelaus, King of Sparta, and persuaded his wife Helen, the most beautiful woman of her age, to fly with him to Troy; and, in consequence, all the Grecian princes united to avenge the outrage. Agamemnon, King of Argos, was chosen commander-in-chief; and among the other commanders were Achilles, Ajax, Menelaus, and Ulysses.

13. After a siege of ten years the city of Troy was taken by the Greeks, and burnt to the ground. Priam and his son Hector were slain, and an end was put to the kingdom. This event took place 1184 B.C.

14. About eighty years after the destruction of Troy, the civil war of the Heraclidæ commenced, 1104 B.C. Hercules, King of Mycenæ, a city of Peloponnesus, had been banished from his throne and country, and his crown had been seized by usurpers, who governed his dominions for about one hundred years. At the expiration of that period, his descendants, who are called the Heraclidæ, returned to Peloponnesus, and, subduing their enemies, took possession of Mycenæ, Argos, and Lacedæmon.

15. The two leading states of Ancient Greece were Athens and Sparta, which was also called Lace-

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dæmon. The characters, habits, and tastes of these states were very different. The former was distinguished for refinement and taste, and the cultivation of literature and the arts; and the latter, for the rude valour, physical hardihood, and iron discipline which characterized its citizens.

16. This difference in the characters of the people of the two states was mainly owing to the influence of laws and institutions which their respective legislators—Solon, of Athens, and Lycurgus, of Sparta—established for their government.

17. Sparta, or Lacedæmon, after the return of the Heraclidæ, and up to the time of Lycurgus, had existed as a double monarchy—two kings reigning jointly and with equal authority. Lycurgus, however, wrought a great change, not only in the form of government, but also in the manners of the people. His aim was to form a nation of soldiers, and the history of Sparta shows how well he succeeded.

18. Lycurgus instituted a senate of 28 members, rendering it superior in authority to the kings, who were merely its presiding officers, and the generals of the army. His laws prohibited commerce, and the use of gold and silver, iron money being the only currency allowed. Distinction of dress was abolished, and all the citizens, including even the kings, were required to eat at public tables, and subsist on coarse and frugal fare. Children who were not deformed, were educated at the public expense for the service of the state; the rest were suffered to perish. Literature was not encouraged; and although some knowledge of letters was imparted, the Spartans were never remarkable for their learning; war, and the art of successfully carrying it on, being considered by them the great business of life. Lycurgus lived 884 B.C.

19. Athens, the capital of Attica, like all the states of Greece, was at first governed by kings. The last king was Codrus, who sacrificed his life for the good of his country during the war of the Heraclidæ.

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After his death the form of government was changed, and the supreme power was vested in magistrates, called Archons. The office of Archon was at first held for life; it was afterwards reduced to ten years, and finally became annual, and was divided among nine persons.

20. The people of Athens, being oppressed by the severe code of laws established by their former lawgiver, Draco, which punished all offences with death, intrusted Solon, one of the seven wise men of Greece, who had been elected an Archon, with the task of establishing a new system.

21. Solon proved himself worthy of the important trust; and by a rational and judicious course framed and established institutions admirably adapted to the spirit of the people. He vested the supreme power of the state in an assembly of the people composed of freemen above the age of 30 years; established a senate of 400; restored the ancient court of the Areopagus, and divided the people into four classes, according to wealth. His laws encouraged commerce, agriculture, and the arts, and established excellent rules of justice and order.

22. The difference in the laws of Athens and Sparta in time produced a corresponding difference in the character and manners of the inhabitants of the two republics. The people of both states, however, were equally jealous of their liberties, and equally brave in war.

23. During the time of Solon, Pisistratus, a wealthy and ambitious citizen, contrived, by courting the favour of the people, to raise himself to the supreme authority in Athens, which he and his sons retained for fifty years.

24. Pisistratus exercised a princely rule, and by the munificent patronage he extended to the arts, sciences, and literature, rendered his administration one of the most brilliant eras in the history of Athens. On his death, he transmitted his power to his two sons,

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Hippias and Hipparchus, who were called the Pisistratidæ, who for some time governed the state with wisdom and moderation. But having at length abused their power, they became obnoxious to the people. A conspiracy, headed by Harmodius and Aristogiton, was formed against them, and they were deposed. Hipparchus was slain, and Hippias fled for succour to Darius Hystaspes, King of Persia, who was at that time preparing to invade Greece.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION I.

1. What is said of Greece?
2. How was Greece situated and bounded? What is said of Macedonia and Epirus?
3. What was Greece called originally, and what is said of its early inhabitants?
4. Who planted colonies in Greece? What cities were first founded, and by whom?
5. How may the history of Greece be divided?
6. What is said of the first period?
7. What were instituted by the Greeks at a very early period?
8. What was another early institution of Greece, and how came it to be established?
9. What was the first great enterprise of the Greeks?
10. What is said of this expedition?
11. What is the most celebrated event of this portion of Grecian history?
12. What was the origin of this war?
13. What was the result of the war?
14. What happened about eighty years after the destruction of Troy?
15. What were the two leading states of Greece, and what is said of them?
16. To what was this difference owing?
17. What is said of Sparta and Lycurgus?
18. What were the changes instituted by Lycurgus?
19. What is said of the government of Athens?
20. What was intrusted to Solon?
21. What is said of Solon and his laws?

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22. What is said of the influence of the laws of Lycurgus and Solon on the inhabitants of Athens and Sparta?
23. What happened during the time of Solon?
24. What is said of Pisistratus? To whom did Pisistratus transmit his power? How did the rule of the Pisistratidæ end?

## SECTION II.

### *From the First Persian War*, 490 B.C., *to the Battle of Mantinea*, 363 B.C.

1. WITH the Persian war the authentic history of Greece may be considered to commence. This period forms the most glorious age of Grecian history. The splendid series of victories in this memorable contest, illustrating the valour of the Greeks, elevating the Confederacy to the pinnacle of renown, and overwhelming in confusion and defeat the Persian hosts, remain even to this day unparalleled in history.

2. Darius Hystaspes, who, as we have seen, succeeded the usurper Smerdis on the throne of Persia, was at this time the most powerful sovereign in the world. The Grecian colonies in Asia Minor, then under the Persian dominion, having rebelled, and attempted to throw off the yoke of the empire, were assisted by the Athenians. This so offended Darius, that he determined to subjugate the whole of Greece —a determination which was encouraged and hastened by Hippias, the son of Pisistratus, who about this time was dethroned, and an exile in Persia.

3. A Persian army, consisting of 110,000 men, led by the most distinguished generals, invaded the country, and poured down like a torrent upon Attica. Miltiades, the Athenian general, at the head of an army of 10,000 men, met this immense force upon the plains of Marathon, a short distance from the city of Athens. A bloody battle ensued, which, notwithstanding their great superiority in numbers, resulted in the complete

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defeat of the Persians, who were driven from the field to their ships. 490 B.C.

4. In consequence of this signal and decisive victory, the gallant general, Miltiades, enjoyed for a brief period the height of favour and popularity. But having shortly after made an unsuccessful attack upon the island of Paros, he was accused of treason by his enemies, and thrown into prison, where he was suffered to die from wounds received in the service of his ungrateful country.

5. Darius, overwhelmed by the disastrous issue of his enterprise, soon after died, and was succeeded by his son Xerxes, who, in a few years, determining to carry out the frustrated designs of his father, renewed the war.

6. The vast preparations made by Xerxes for this great purpose, evince that the power and valour of the Greeks were not only fully appreciated, but feared by the Persian monarch. He collected an army which, including his naval forces, amounted to the immense number of 2,317,600 fighting men; and the addition of his retinue of sutlers, slaves, and women swelled the host that attended the expedition to 5,000,000.

7. Having crossed the Hellespont with his land forces, by means of a bridge of boats, Xerxes advanced rapidly against the Athenians and Lacedæmonians. But his progress was arrested at the pass of Thermopylæ, in Phocis. Here Leonidas, King of Sparta, at the head of three hundred of his brave countrymen, withstood the vast power of the invader for three days. The discovery of a secret path, however, having given the Persians the advantage, Leonidas and his gallant soldiers perished to a man. Xerxes is said to have lost there his choicest troops. 480. B.C.

8. The Persians immediately entered Attica, ravaging the country with fire and sword. As they approached Athens, the inhabitants, panic stricken, abandoned the city, and took refuge in their ships.

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The invaders, unopposed, entered Athens, which they pillaged and burnt.

9. But a serious reverse awaited the Persians. The inhabitants of Athens having embarked their fortunes in their fleet, consisting of 300 galleys, under the command of Themistocles and Aristides, shortly after engaged the Persian fleet of 1,200 galleys, in the Straits of Salamis, and defeated them with immense loss. Xerxes, seated on an elevated point of the coast, which overlooked the conflict, seeing the utter destruction of his vast armament, and terrified at its result, precipitately retreated with a part of his army and returned to his dominions.

10. He, however, left his general, Mardonius, at the head of 300,000 men, to complete the conquest of Greece. The succeeding summer, however, sealed the fate of this army. Mardonius was met at Platæa by the combined forces of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, under Aristides and Pausanias, and his immense army was completely routed and cut to pieces, Mardonius himself being among the slain. 479 B.C.

11. On the same day which was signalized by the victory at Platæa, the Greeks, under Leotychides, the Lacedæmonian, and Xantippus, the Athenian, engaged the remainder of the Persian fleet off the promontory Mycale, and gained a glorious and decisive victory—thus completely destroying the imposing host which so short a time before threatened their country with annihilation. Xerxes was soon after assassinated, and was succeeded by his son Artaxerxes Longimanus.

12. The Greeks, emboldened by their success, now assumed the attitude of assailants, and boldly determined to liberate from the Persian yoke the Greek colonies of Asia Minor.

13. The Spartans, commanded by Pausanias, and the Athenians by Aristides and Cimon, the son of Miltiades, took possession of the Island of Cyprus.

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which they set free. They also took the city of Byzantium, which they plundered.

14. About this time Pausanias, the Spartan, being convicted of treasonable communication with the Persian monarch, was suffered to die of hunger in the Temple of Minerva, whither he had fled for refuge from his enemies. Themistocles, the Athenian, being accused of participating in the treason of Pausanias, was banished by his indignant countrymen, and the affairs of Athens were for a short time conducted by Aristides.

15. On the death of Aristides, the supreme power in Athens devolved on Cimon, the son of Miltiades, who justly earned the reputation of being one of the most illustrious statesmen and warriors that Greece ever produced. Shortly after his elevation to power, he attacked and completely destroyed an army of 300,000 Persians, near the mouth of the river Eurymidon, in Asia Minor. Subsequently, after a brilliant military career, in which he constantly defeated the Persians, he died of a wound received at the siege of Cictium.

16. Shortly after this event, the Persian war, which had lasted about fifty years, ended—Artaxerxes having, in consequence of the disastrous defeats which his armies sustained, sued for peace. The Greeks granted the peace, on condition that the Greek colonies in Asia should be free, and that no Persian ship of war should enter the Grecian seas.

17. The period of the Persian war was the most glorious in Grecian history. Though a relish for Asiatic manners and luxuries was contracted, literature and the arts were cultivated at Athens with great success. Pericles, who, after the termination of the war, ruled Athens for about forty years, was a most liberal patron of the arts and sciences. His administration, during which the city was adorned with masterpieces of architecture, sculpture, and painting, formed an era of great internal splendour and magnificence.

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18. But before the death of Pericles, the Peloponnesian war, arising out of the long-continued rivalship of Athens and Sparta, involved nearly all the states of Greece in a sanguinary contest, which, during twenty-seven years, wasted the energies and destroyed the power of the whole. The great military power which the Grecian states had acquired by their union against a common enemy, was in this war frittered away and lost by their impolitic quarrels and divisions.

19. The Athenians having been accused by the Corinthians of violating the treaty of the confederated states of Peloponnesus, an appeal to arms was resolved on. Sparta took the lead against Athens, and was joined by nearly all of the Confederacy. A few of the states in Northern Greece sided with Athens.

20. The contest was essentially a civil war, and was conducted in a spirit of savage ferocity, strangely at variance with the high state of refinement and civilization which at the time characterised Greece.

21. Each party having in time suffered severe losses the Peloponnesian war ended in the defeat of the Athenians. The Spartans, under Lysander, completely destroyed the Athenian fleet at Ægos Potamos, and Athens was placed at the mercy of her enemies. The Athenians were compelled to accede to the most humiliating terms of peace, and Sparta became the leading power in Greece.

22. Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government, and substituted in its place an oligarchy consisting of thirty magistrates, who, for their atrocious acts of cruelty, were styled the thirty tyrants. Their power, however, was of short duration. Before a year elapsed, Thrasybulus, at the head of a band of patriots, overthrew their authority, expelled them from the city, and re-established the popular government.

23. About three years after this event, the great

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philosopher Socrates, being unjustly accused of corrupting the youth of Athens, was condemned by the Assembly of Athens to die by poison. The fate of Socrates forms one of the most affecting and interesting episodes in Grecian history. He submitted to his sentence with great calmness and fortitude, and having drunk the poison, died with signal composure, in the 70th year of his age. 400 B.C.

24. The natural consequences of the destructive intestine warfare which characterised Greece after the peace with Persia, were soon developed. A spirit of rancour and hatred pervaded the states, and the union and concord which had rendered them so glorious and powerful became completely lost in their vindictive collisions. Athens—humbled, subdued, and dispirited—languished and declined in an inglorious luxury; and Sparta, inflated with her successes, began to evince a most insolent and domineering spirit towards her neighbours.

25. Thebes, at this time, commenced to figure in the affairs of Greece; and the Spartans, wishing to crush its rising power, seized upon the Theban citadel. A sanguinary war between Thebes and Sparta was the consequence. Epaminondas, the leader of the Theban armies, defeated the Spartans at the celebrated battle of Leuctra, and eight years after, still further humbled their power by completely routing them at the battle of Mantinea. B.C. 363. Epaminondas was, however, slain in that battle, and Thebes, which owed to him all its glory, rapidly declined after his death.

26. After the battle of Mantinea peace was restored among the states, but their suicidal course had produced its effects. Weakened, exhausted, and degenerated in spirit, Greece was an open and an easy prey for the hardy and warlike power which at that time had fixed its ambitious gaze upon her.

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QUESTIONS ON SECTION II.

1. When does the authentic history of Greece commence? What is said of this period?
2. Who was the Persian king at this time, and what produced the Persian war?
3. How did the war commence, and what was the result of the first invasion?
4. What became of Miltiades?
5. Under whom was the war renewed?
6. What is said of the preparations of Xerxes?
7. What happened after the Persians crossed the Hellespont?
8. What happened after the battle at Thermopylæ?
9. What reverse awaited the Persians? What was the result of the battle of Salamis?
10. Whom did Xerxes leave in Greece? What was the fate of this army?
11. What happened on the same day? What became of Xerxes?
12. What attitude did the Greeks now assume?
13. What are the next events of the war?
14. What happened about this time?
15. Who succeeded Aristides in the supreme power at Athens? What is said of Cimon?
16. What happened shortly after the death of Cimon?
17. What is said of Greece at the period of the Persian war, and during the age of Pericles?
18. What happened before the death of Pericles?
19. What was the immediate cause of the Peloponnesian war?
20. What was the character of this contest?
21. How was the Peloponnesian war ended?
22. What happened after the reduction of Athens? How was the popular government restored?
23. What happened about three years after this event?
24. What was the fate of Greece after the peace with Persia?
25. What is said of Thebes at this time? What produced the war between Thebes and Sparta? What is said of Epaminondas?
26. What was the position of Greece after the battle of Mantinea?

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## SECTION III.

### *From the Battle of Mantinea,* B.C. 363, *to the Subjugation of Greece by the Romans,* B.C. 146.

1. NOTHING very important occurs in the history of Greece after the peace which succeeded the battle of Mantinea, until the appearance of Philip, King of Macedon. This wily and sagacious monarch, noticing the fallen condition of the states, formed the ambitious design of bringing the whole of Greece under his dominion.

2. The kingdom of Macedon was founded 807 years B.C., by Caranus, an Argive by birth, and a descendant of Hercules. Although this kingdom had existed, as such, for the space of 447 years, it had not risen to any importance. It was not until 360 B.C., when the reins of government fell into the hands of the warlike Philip, that Macedonia commenced to take a bold stand among the nations.

3. The Macedonian Empire, which was commenced by Philip, and completed by his son, Alexander the Great, was the third great empire of antiquity. It is also called the Grecian Empire, because Greece, strictly speaking, included Macedonia, and because all Greece became subject to Philip and Alexander.

4. Philip commenced his designs against the liberties of Greece by sowing dissensions among the inhabitants. The people of Phocis claimed the right to cultivate a tract of land called the Cirrhæan Plain, which several other states maintained had long been consecrated to Apollo. The Amphyctionic Council decreed that the Phocians should cease to use the sacred domain, under severe penalties. The Phocians having resisted this decree, a contest arose, called the Sacred War, in which nearly all the Grecian states took a part.

5. In the midst of this war, which lasted ten years, Philip proposed to act as arbitrator; and having se

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cured for himself a seat in the Amphyctionic Council, concluded the war.

6. At this time the great Grecian orator, Demosthenes, penetrating the designs of Philip, roused the people of Athens to a sense of their danger; but the snare had been already laid. The Locrians having trespassed on the ground celebrated to the Delphian Apollo, and refusing to obey the decree of the Amphyctions, a second Sacred War ensued, in which Philip was invited to participate.

7. Philip immediately invaded Phocis, the key to the territory of Attica. Demosthenes, with the true spirit of a patriot, and with burning and resistless eloquence, which even to this day has never been surpassed, exposed the artful designs of the invader, and roused his countrymen to a last and vigorous effort for the preservation of their liberties. The effort was vain. The fate of Greece was decided at the battle of Cheronæa, which, resulting in favour of Philip, subjected all the states to the dominion of Macedon. B.C. 338.

8. Philip having made a prudent use of his victory, and in a great measure conciliated the Greeks by suffering them to retain the shadow of their former government, now meditated the conquest of Persia, and caused himself to be elected for this purpose, by a Council of the States, generalissimo of the Grecian armies; but, at the very time when he was preparing to carry out this design, he was killed by a captain of the guards.

9. Philip was succeeded by his son, Alexander, surnamed the Great, who had been educated by the celebrated Grecian philosopher, Aristotle, and ascended the throne at the age of twenty years. The young monarch determined to follow the glorious path marked out by his father; and having quelled an insurrection, which the fiery eloquence of Demosthenes had aroused against him among the Greeks, and destroyed the noble city of Thebes, he convoked a

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General Council of the States at Corinth, renewed the proposal of invading and conquering Persia, and was appointed, as his father had been, generalissimo of the Greeks.

10. Having assembled an army of 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse, Alexander, with provisions only for a single month, crossed the Hellespont, and with these slender means commenced the conquest of the Persian Empire.

11. Darius Codomanus, the Persian king, thinking to crush the "Mad Boy of Macedon" at the outset of his career, met Alexander on the banks of the river Granicus, with an army of 120,000 men. Here a great battle was fought, in which the Persians were routed with severe loss.

12. This victory was important in its consequences, as it placed Alexander in possession of the rich city of Sardis, and gave him the key to many other valuable acquisitions. He soon after took Miletus, Halicarnassus, and other considerable cities.

13. The next important event in the war was the battle of Issus, fought in the ensuing spring. The Persian army, stated at 600,000 men, was defeated by Alexander with a great slaughter. The engagement took place in a narrow defile, where only a small portion of the Persian host could be brought into action. The mother, wife, and daughter of the Persian monarch fell into the hands of Alexander, who treated them with great consideration and kindness.

14. Alexander next proceeded to the rich commercial city of Tyre, which, after a siege of seven months, he reduced to submission. Thence, having invested and taken the city of Gaza, he proceeded to Egypt, which, ever since the time of Cambyses the Younger, had been subject to Persia. It submitted without opposition to the authority of the conqueror, who while there founded the famous city of Alexandria, at the mouth of the Nile.

15. Returning from Egypt, Alexander, at the head

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of about 50,000 men, crossed the Euphrates, and met Darius near the town of Arbela, commanding a force which is said to have amounted to about 700,000 men. Here a tremendous battle was fought, in which the Persians were again utterly defeated, with a loss of about 300,000 men.

16. The battle of Arbela decided the fate of the Persian Empire, which now submitted to the conqueror. The unfortunate Darius was soon after murdered by one of his nobles. 330 B.C.

17. Alexander having thus completed the conquest of Assyria, Persia, Media, and Egypt, crossed the mountains of Caucasus, entered Hyrcania, and conquered all the nations south of the Oxus. Thence he crossed Bactriana and Sogdiana, where he put to death the perfidious murderer of Darius. The same year he crossed the Jaxartes, and defeated the Massagetæ and other barbarians. He then returned to Macanda, the capital of Sogdiana, where, in a fit of intoxication, he killed Clytus, a veteran soldier who had saved his life on the Granicus. B.C. 328.

18. Alexander now resolved on an expedition to India, and penetrated beyond the Hydaspes, a branch of the river Indus, where he conquered Porus, a king of the country, who opposed his progress. Continuing his course eastward, he arrived on the banks of the Ganges, where his soldiers, terrified at the vast tracts of unknown and frequently desert country which they had already passed, and others which still lay before them, revolted and refused to go further. Alexander was constrained to desist. He then pursued a southern course by the Indus, until he arrived at its mouth, whence he despatched his fleet round to the Persian Gulf, under the command of Nearchus.

19. Alexander then resolved to return, and marched to Babylon, where he gave himself up to such intemperate excesses, that his life was suddenly shortened. He died in the midst of the wildest dreams of ambition, in the 33rd year of his age. B.C. 323.



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20. No human character occupies a more prominent position in history than that of Alexander. He was endowed with great military talents, and might have been distinguished as a statesman. Though brave, romantic, generous, and amiable in his disposition, his extraordinary and rapid successes, inflaming his vanity and ambition, perverted his character, and hurried him on in a wild and reckless career, which brought him to an untimely grave, without benefit to mankind, and left no title to his surname of Great, save the monuments of his brilliant and bloody conquests.

21. Alexander named no successor to the vast empire he had conquered; and his death was followed by various intrigues, massacres, and wars, which in twelve years resulted in the total extirpation of his family, and a partition of his empire among four of his generals, who, in consequence, became the rulers of four new monarchies. B.C. 312.

22. These four generals were Ptolemy Lagus, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus. To Ptolemy were assigned Egypt, Lybia, Arabia, and Palestine; to Cassander, Macedonia and Greece; to Lysimachus, Bithynia and Thrace; and to Seleucus, the remaining territories in Asia, as far as the river Indus, which were called the kingdom of Syria.

23. The kingdom of Egypt, as we have seen, became prosperous under the reign of the first Ptolemies, in whose family it remained for nearly 300 years, until the time of Cleopatra, when it became a province of the Roman Empire. The kingdom of Macedonia continued until the battle of Pydna, when the Macedonians, under their king, Perseus, were defeated, and subdued by the Romans. B.C. 167. The kingdom of Thrace and Bithynia was short-lived, Lysimachus, its first sovereign, being defeated by Seleucus, about twenty-two years after its foundation. The kingdom of Syria, comprising the greater part of Alexander's conquests in Asia, was the most powerful of the four

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great monarchies. It continued under the rule of Seleucus and his descendants, styled the Seleucidæ, until it was conquered by the Romans under Pompey. B.C. 64.

24. The news of Alexander's death aroused the Greeks, under the stirring eloquence of Demosthenes, to a last exertion to regain their independence. But they were defeated by Antipater the Macedonian, and Demosthenes ended his life by poison. From this period to their conquest by the Romans, the history of the states of Greece is characterized by turbulence, degeneracy, revolutions, and ineffectual struggles for freedom.

25. The last effort made for maintaining the liberty and independence of Greece, was the establishment of a confederacy, called the Achæan League, which, at first formed by twelve small cities of Peloponnesus, afterwards embraced most of the Grecian states.

26. The Romans, however, who had now commenced to lead in the affairs of the world, jealous of the power of the Achæan League, sought to weaken it by creating divisions among the states. Sparta, at length, in a contest with the League, besought the aid of the Romans, who, under the command of Metellus, advanced with their victorious legions into Greece, and gained a decisive victory over the Achæan army. The remainder of the Achæan forces having shut themselves up in Corinth, Mummius, the Roman consul, took and destroyed the city, thus completing the conquest. The constitution of the League was soon after annulled, and the whole of Greeee was reduced to a Roman province, under the name of Achaia. B.C. 146.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION III.

1. What is said of the history of Greece after the peace of Mantinea?
2. When, and by whom, was the kingdom of Macedon founded, and what is said of it?

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3. What is said of the Macedonian Empire?
4. How did Philip commence his designs? What produced the first Sacred War?
5. How did Philip take advantage of this war?
6. What is said of Demosthenes, and what produced the second Sacred War?
7. How did Philip take advantage of this war? What was the result of the war?
8. What did Philip next meditate, and how did he proceed? What interrupted his designs?
9. Who succeeded Philip? What is said of Alexander?
10. How did Alexander commence his expedition against Persia?
11. What is said of Darius Codomanus?
12. What were the consequences of the battle of the Granicus?
13. What was the next important event?
14. What were the subsequent actions of Alexander?
15. What happened on his return from Egypt?
16. What was the consequence of the battle of Arbela?
17. What were the subsequent actions of Alexander?
18. What was the next resolution of Alexander, and how did he undertake to perform it? What prevented its complete performance?
19. What did Alexander next do? How, and when, did he die?
20. What is said of the character of Alexander?
21. What happened after Alexander's death?
22. Who were the four generals who divided the empire, and what portions were assigned to each?
23. What is said of these four kingdoms?
24. What was the effect of Alexander's death on the Greeks?
25. What was the last effort of Greece to maintain her liberty?
26. What was the policy of the Romans, and in what did it result? What completed the conquest of Greece?

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## CHAPTER VIII.

### ROME.

1. By reference to the former chapters, it will be perceived that all the countries and kingdoms of which we have spoken, met, though at different periods, within a century, a common fate—that of being subjected to the power of the Romans. We, therefore, naturally turn next to the history of the sublime and imposing career of that wonderful people, who, starting from a few rude huts on the banks of the Tiber, and advancing gradually and steadily in the road to greatness, at length planted their victorious standards in every clime, and overshadowed the then known world with the magnitude of their power.

2. The Roman Empire was the last and much the most powerful and enduring of the four great empires of antiquity. Its history, from its insignificant beginning, and through its glorious and gigantic progress and rapid decline, to its disastrous termination, is fruitful in great events and illustrious personages, and has exerted a powerful influence over the history of every subsequent age.

3. The ancient history of Rome may be divided into three parts:—1st, From the foundation of the city, 753 B.C., to the expulsion of the kings, 509 B.C.; 2nd, From the expulsion of the kings, 509 B.C., to the end of the Republic, 31 B.C.; 3rd, From the end of the Republic, 31 B.C., to the subversion of the Western Empire, A.C. 746.

#### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VIII.

1. What appears from former chapters, and what history is next referred to?
2. What is said of the Roman Empire?
3. How may the history of Rome be divided?

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## SECTION I.

### *From the Foundation of the City*, 753 B.C., *to Expulsion of the Kings*, 509 B.C.

1. ROME took its name from its founder, Romulus, who, we are told by the Roman poets, was descended from Æneas, a Trojan prince, through a line of fifteen kings of Latium, in Italy. He and his twin brother, Remus, were in their infancy exposed to perish on account of their mother; but having been preserved in a remarkable manner, spent their youth in hardy though obscure pursuits. Grown to manhood, they determined to build a city; and collecting a band of adventurers, commenced the work. An altercation soon took place between Romulus and Remus, in which the latter was slain by his brother, who proceeded with the building of the city, which he called from his own name.

2. Romulus, having been elected king by his rude and lawless band, soon introduced order and discipline among them. He increased the number of inhabitants by making the city an asylum for outlaws and fugitives, and by a stratagem which enabled his subjects to seize and carry off the Sabine women for wives. He divided the people into two classes—the patricians, or nobles, and the plebeians, or common people. He also established a senate of 100 members, afterwards increased to 300.

3. The second king of Rome was Numa Pompilius, a Sabine. He is described as a useful, virtuous, and pacific ruler—cherishing among his people the arts of peace, obedience to the laws, and respect for religion. He built the celebrated Temple of Janus, which was opened during war, and closed during peace.

4. The third king was Tullus Hostilius. He was of a warlike disposition. During his reign the Romans became masters of the neighbouring kingdom of Alba.

5. The fourth king was Ancus Martius, the grandson

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of Numa Pompilius. He conquered the Latins, and built the port of Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber.

6. The fifth king was Tarquinius Priscus, or Tarquin the Elder. He greatly embellished the city by erecting works of utility and magnificence.

7. The sixth king was Servius Tullius. He established the census, by which, at the end of every fifth year, the number of the citizens, their dwellings, number of children, and amount of property, were ascertained.

8. The seventh and last king of Rome was Tarquinius Superbus (Tarquin the Proud). His reign, from the commencement, was one of remorseless tyranny. All classes of his subjects became exasperated, and needed only an exciting occasion, and a bold leader, to sweep him from the throne. These were soon supplied. The infamous son of Tarquin having committed a most atrocious crime, and Brutus and Collatinus having in consequence aroused the long-slumbering vengeance of the citizens, Tarquin and his family were banished, and the kingly government was overthrown and abolished. B.C. 509.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION I.

1. From what did Rome derive its name, and how was it founded?
2. What is said of Romulus?
3. Who was the second king? What was his character?
4. Who was the third king? His character?
5. Who was the fourth king?
6. Who was the fifth king? What is said of him?
7. Who was the sixth king? What is said of him?
8. Who was the seventh and last king? What is said of his reign? What terminated the kingly government?

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## SECTION II.

### *From the Expulsion of the Kings*, B.C. 509, *to the First Punic War*, B.C. 264.

1. THE kingly government having been thus destroyed, a republic was established in its stead, at the head of which were two magistrates, styled consuls, who were annually elected by the people from among the patricians. The first consuls were Brutus and Collatinus, by whose exertions the tyranny of the Tarquins had been overthrown.

2. The new government, however, had to struggle through great perils. Tarquin, having prevailed on some neighbouring cities to espouse his cause, was in the field with a formidable force; and a conspiracy within the city was on foot, and ripe for execution, the object of which was to open the gates for the return of the banished king. This conspiracy was discovered and crushed. The two sons of Brutus were convicted of a participation in the foul treason, and were condemned to death by their own father, who sternly witnessed their execution.

3. During thirteen years after the expulsion of Tarquin, the Romans were involved in wars on his account. They, however, finally triumphed over all their enemies. The sons of Tarquin having been slain, peace was restored.

4. After this Rome was greatly disturbed by contests between the patricians and the plebeians. The latter feeling themselves oppressed, resolved to abandon the city, and removed to a place called Mons Sacer, in the neighbourhood. A reconciliation, however, was brought about by a compromise between the two classes. The debts of the plebeians were remitted, and they were permitted to choose annually from among themselves magistrates, styled tribunes, who should have the power to annul by a single veto every measure which they should deem injurious to their

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interest. The number of these magistrates was at first five, afterwards increased to ten.

5. The establishment of the tribunes greatly increased the weight and importance of the plebeians and in time their influence so preponderated over that of the patricians, that a law was passed, called the Law of Volero, which, in effect, took the supreme authority from the latter, and placed it in the hands of the plebeians, and the Roman government became a democracy.

6. The Romans had hitherto possessed no written code of laws; and the continued dissensions, difficulties, and oppressions which resulted from their crude and undigested regulations, induced them to send three commissioners to Greece, for the purpose of procuring the laws of Solon, and such others as might be useful in forming a suitable code. B.C. 454.

7. Upon the return of the commissioners, ten of the principal senators, called decemvirs, were appointed to digest a body of laws, and put them in execution for one year. The result of this regulation was the celebrated body of laws known as the Laws of the Twelve Tables, which continued in force and high authority during the most glorious times of the republic.

8. The decemviri, who were invested with absolute power, governed during the year for which they were appointed with great equity and moderation. This rendered them so popular, that they obtained a new appointment. But they soon became overbearing and tyrannical; and Appius Claudius, one of their number, having abused his power by the commission of most flagrant outrages, the people indignantly expelled them from their office, and the consuls were restored.

9. The contests between the patricians and plebeians, however, still continued, and the latter constantly prevailed over the former. A law which existed prohibiting intermarriages between the two orders

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was, after a long contest, repealed. Emboldened by this success, the plebeians next demanded a share in the consulship, and determined to enforce their demand by refusing, on the occurrence of war, to enlist in the service of the state. The result was an agreement on both sides, that, instead of consuls, six military tribunes, with the power of consuls, should be chosen, three of them from the patricians and three from the plebeians. The consuls, however, were restored some time after.

10. These frequent disorders gave rise to two important regulations: first, the appointment of two officers, styled censors, who, in addition to the regular enumeration of the citizens every five years, inspected the morals, remedied the wants, and regulated the duties of the people; and secondly, in order to avoid the evils arising from the people frequently refusing to enlist, the establishment of a regular pay to the troops. From this regulation may be dated the commencement of the brilliant train of successes which attended the Roman arms. The senate always found soldiers at command; the army was under its control; the enterprises of the state became more extensive, and its success more signal and important.

11. The Gauls, a warlike and barbarous people, having penetrated into the north of Italy, and besieged Clusium, a city of Etruria, the inhabitants besought the aid of the Romans. The senate having listened favourably to this call, and sent ambassadors who assisted the inhabitants of Clusium, Brennus, the king and leader of the Gauls, immediately marched against Rome. Having defeated the Roman army, near the river Allia, the Gauls entered Rome, which they pillaged and burnt. B.C. 385.

12. The capitol, or citadel, alone remained in the possession of the Romans. This Brennus resolved to take also; but, whilst engaged in the undertaking, Camillus, the Roman general, who in this emergency had been appointed dictator, appeared with a large

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army, and, attacking the barbarians, routed them with great slaughter. The city being freed from this formidable foe, soon began to rise from its ashes.

13. The Romans next turned their arms against the Samnites, a people living in the southern part of Italy. This war, which lasted upwards of fifty years, was bravely contested by the Samnites; but the Romans finally triumphed, and the country was subjugated.

14. The Tarentines, who had been the allies of the Samnites, soon felt the growing power of the Romans, and in their alarm besought the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, one of the most renowned and skilful generals of the age. Pyrrhus landed at Tarentum with a large army. The contest was long and severe, but the perseverance and heroism of the Romans at length prevailed. Pyrrhus was defeated, and forced to retire to his own dominions; and the Tarentines being reduced to subjection, the Romans became masters of all southern Italy. B.C. 266.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION II.

1. What happened after the expulsion of the kings?
2. With what had the new government to struggle?
3. What continued during thirteen years? What was the result of these disturbances?
4. What disturbed Rome after this period?
5. What was the effect of the establishment of tribunes?
6. What is said of the Roman laws up to this time? How did they propose to remedy the defect?
7. What was done on the return of the commissioners? What was the result of this legislation?
8. What is said of the decemviri? What terminated their office?
9. What is said of the contests between the patricians and the plebeians?
10. To what did these contests give rise?
11. What is said of the Gauls? How came they to march against Rome? What happened?

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12. What remained in possession of the Romans? What was the resolution of Brennus? What thwarted him?
13. Where did the Romans next turn their arms? What was the result?
14. What is said of the Tarentines? What is said of this contest?

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## SECTION III.

### *From the First Punic War,* B.C. 264, *to the First Triumvirate,* B.C. 60.

1. THE Romans having now extended their sway over southern Italy, fixed their eyes upon Sicily, a considerable island immediately to the south of their new conquests. The chief city of this island, Syracuse, which was founded by the Corinthians, was at this time one of the most populous and commercial cities of the world, and was governed by a king, or, as he was styled, tyrant. Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, being engaged in a war with the Mamertines, whose cause had been espoused by the Romans, was assisted by the Carthaginians. This assistance produced a war between Carthage and Rome, which is styled the first Punic War.

2. Carthage was a city situated on the northern coast of Africa, a little to the south-west of Sicily It was founded by Dido, a Phœnician princess, about 869 B.C. At the commencement of the first Punic War, it had become, by means of its extensive commerce, a most wealthy and powerful city. Its government was republican, and it had under its dominion 300 smaller towns bordering on the Mediterranean, a great part of Spain, also of Sicily, and other islands. The city possessed a population of 700,000 inhabitants.

3. The Romans were ill prepared, at the commencement of the first Punic War, to contend with a mari-

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time power such as Carthage. The latter possessed a powerful fleet, manned by experienced seamen; whilst the Romans, having paid no attention to maritime affairs, were totally destitute of those requisites for a naval warfare. Their indomitable enterprise, however, triumphed over every obstacle. A Carthaginian vessel having been driven on their shores, furnished them a model; and, in a short time, the first Roman fleet, of more than one hundred vessels, engaged the Carthaginians on their own element, and obtained a complete victory. Agrigentum, in Sicily, soon after fell into the hands of the Romans; and the Roman fleet, having been increased to about 300 galleys, gained a second great naval victory over the Carthaginians.

4. The Carthaginians now sued for peace, but in vain. Regulus, the Roman consul, landed with an army on the coast of Africa, and, defeating the Carthaginians, appeared before their capital. Here, however, he was defeated by the Carthaginian army, under Xantippus, a Spartan, and taken prisoner. He was afterwards cruelly put to death.

5. The war continued to rage during several years, with various success; but it finally terminated unfavourably to the Carthaginians, who were forced to accept humiliating terms of peace, and to give up all their possessions in Sicily to the Romans. B.C. 241.

6. A peace of twenty-three years ensued. At the end of that period, Hannibal, the Carthaginian, one of the greatest generals of antiquity, laid siege to the city of Saguntum, in Spain, which was in alliance with the Romans. This produced the second Punic War.

7. Hannibal, having taken Saguntum, led his army across the Pyrenees and the Alps, and poured his forces into Italy. He gained four great victories over the Romans—the first, near the Ticinas; the second, near the Trevia; the third, near the Lake Thrasymenus; and the fourth at Cannæ. The defeat at

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Cannæ was the most memorable the Romans ever sustained; more than 40,000 of their troops were left dead on the field.

8. Hannibal, after these great victories, was held in check by the Romans, under Fabius and Marcellus, who gained various advantages over the Carthaginians in Italy and Sicily. At length, Scipio, surnamed Africanus, an enterprising Roman general, having conquered Spain, "carried the war into Africa," and appeared with his victorious legions before the walls of Carthage. In this emergency, Hannibal was recalled from Italy, and obliged to abandon all the advantages he had gained. With a large army he met the Romans, under Scipio, on the field of Zama, where a great battle was fought, and the Carthaginians were totally defeated.

9. A peace soon followed, on conditions most humiliating to the Carthaginians. They were compelled to abandon all their possessions in Spain and the Mediterranean, surrender nearly the whole of their fleet, and, in future, undertake no war without the consent of the Romans. B.C. 203.

10. During their hostilities with Carthage, the Romans prosecuted the first Macedonian War, which ended in the defeat of Philip at Cynocephalæ. Subsequently, a Roman army, under Scipio, surnamed Asiaticus, invaded Syria, and defeated Antiochus the Great in the battle of Magnesia. The second Macedonian War followed, which terminated, at the battle of Pydna, in the defeat of Perseus, the last king of Macedonia, and the reduction of that country to a Roman province. B.C. 168.

11. About fifty years after the conclusion of the second Punic War, the Carthaginians having attempted to repel an invasion of the Numidians, the Romans, pretending that this was a violation of the treaty, made it the ground of the third Punic War, with the express design of effecting the entire destruction of Carthage.

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12. The Carthaginians in vain offered every submission. All their overtures were rejected. At length, driven to despair, they bravely resisted the power of their enemies for three years, when their noble city was taken by the Roman general, and, being set on fire, was burned to the ground. B.C. 146. So complete was the destruction, that scarce a vestige remains to tell where that splendid city stood.

13. The same year in which this barbarous transaction took place, was signalized by the taking of Corinth, and the reduction of Greece to a Roman province.

14. At this period the Romans were not distinguished as a literary people, and the arts and sciences had received among them but little encouragement. Their character had been remarkable for little more than temperance, simplicity, severity of manners, and military enterprise. Now, however, laden with the rich spoils of their wide-spread conquests, and concentrating among themselves the wealth, learning, and intelligence of their subjugated dependencies—among which Greece stood brilliantly pre-eminent—the Roman people began to acquire a taste for literature, art, and science, which in time ripened to luxuriant maturity.

15. The Romans having, as we have seen, annihilated their nearest and most powerful rivals, and having now no foreign object to excite apprehension, the fiery and ambitious temperament, which had become a national characteristic, found vent once more in domestic turmoil and dissension. The old struggle between the patricians and plebeians commenced.

16. Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, brothers, known in history as the Gracchi, were men of singular eloquence, and of great influence among the people. Tiberius, the elder, by his bold endeavours to check the increasing power of the patricians, created a tumult in which he and 300 of his friends perished in the Forum. Caius followed the course taken by his brother, and, like him, having fomented a sedition, and

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arrayed the masses of the people against the constituted authorities, fell, with 3,000 of his partisans, a victim to his zeal and temerity. B.C. 121.

17. About ten years after this event, the celebrated war waged by the Romans against Jugurtha commenced. Jugurtha, by the foul murder of his cousins, had usurped the crown of Numidia, in violation of the terms upon which the government of that kingdom had been previously settled by the Roman senate, as arbitrators between the usurper and one of his cousins. This called down upon him the vengeance of Rome. Jugurtha was defeated by the Romans, under Caius Marius, taken prisoner, and carried in chains to Rome. B.C. 106.

18. A few years after this, a war was commenced against Mithridates, king of Pontus, who had formed the design of uniting the northern and eastern nations in a confederacy for the purpose of breaking down the power of Rome. This celebrated contest, which lasted upwards of twenty years, was conducted on the part of Rome, at different periods, by the distinguished generals, Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey. It was at length terminated by Pompey, in the complete defeat of Mithridates. B.C. 66.

19. Shortly after the commencement of the Mithridatic War, a most sanguinary civil war broke out between Marius and Sylla, which was productive of the most ruinous consequences. Upwards of 150,000 Roman citizens perished in the unnatural and barbarous contest.

20. These domestic dissensions, aided by the injurious influence of wealth and luxury, soon produced their natural results: disinterested patriotism and public virtue perceptibly declined, and venality, vice, and corruption commenced to spread with frightful rapidity.

21. One of the fruits of this mournful change was the infamous conspiracy of Catiline, who, at the head of his profligate and treasonable associates, meditated

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the fiendish design of totally destroying the city of Rome by fire, and massacring all the senators. Fortunately, his diabolical purpose was detected and crushed by the vigilance and energy of Cicero, the great Roman orator. Catiline, at the head of 12,000 men, was defeated and slain, and his army cut to pieces. B.C. 62.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION III.

1. What is said of the Romans after the conquest of southern Italy? What produced the first Punic War?
2. What is said of Carthage?
3. What is said of the Romans and Carthaginians? How did the Romans supply their want of vessels? What followed?
4. What did the Carthaginians now do? What is said of Regulus?
5. How did the war terminate?
6. What ensued, and what took place after?
7. What is said of Hannibal? What is said of the defeat at Cannæ?
8. What happened after these victories? What is said of Scipio Africanus? What was the consequence of his appearance in Africa?
9. What was the consequence of the battle of Zama?
10. What wars were conducted by the Romans during their hostilities with Carthage?
11. What happened about fifty years after the second Punic War?
12. What was the conduct of the Carthaginians, and the result of the War?
13. What happened the same year in which Carthage was destroyed?
14. What is said of the Romans up to this period? What change took place in their character from this period?
15. What is said of the Romans after having subdued their rivals?
16. What is said of Tiberius and Caius Gracchus?
17. What happened about ten years after? What was the cause and result of the war?



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18. What happened a few years after the wars with Jugurtha? What is said of this contest, and how was it terminated?
19. What occurred shortly after the commencement of the Mithridatic War?
20. What was the effect of these domestic dissensions?
21. What was one of the fruits of this change in the Roman character? By whom was Catiline thwarted, and what was his fate?

## SECTION IV.

### *From the Formation of the First Triumvirate,* B.C. 60, *to the Battle of Actium,* B.C. 31.

1. At this period the three most powerful men in Rome were Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Cæsar. Pompey, after having defeated Mithridates, and reduced Syria, together with Judea, to a Roman province, had returned to Rome, honoured with a triumph, and greeted with the warmest evidences of favour. Crassus was distinguished for his enormous wealth and great popularity; and Cæsar, by his talents and military actions, had won for himself an enviable reputation among his countrymen.

2. These three personages formed the design of appropriating to themselves the power and command of the empire, and formed the celebrated league, called the First Triumvirate. They distributed among themselves the government of the foreign provinces. Pompey received Spain and Africa, and remained at home; Crassus chose Syria; and Cæsar, Gaul.

3. Crassus was shortly after killed in a war against the Parthians; and Cæsar, proceeding to Gaul, commenced a splendid career of victory, which, during eight campaigns, constantly attended his arms, and made him master of all that portion of Europe.

4. Pompey, becoming jealous of the growing fame of his great rival, determined to check his career, and

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the term of Cæsar's government being about to expire, the senate, at the instigation of Pompey, refused to renew it, and advised him to disband his forces. Cæsar, penetrating the designs of Pompey, and finding his army devoted to his interests, determined to resist the decree. A civil war was the consequence.

5. Leading his troops across the Alps, Cæsar reached the banks of the Rubicon, a small stream that marked the boundary of his command. The senate had decreed it to be treason to pass that stream with an armed force. Cæsar, however, casting his whole fortune in the step, crossed the Rubicon, and pressed towards Rome with his legions.

6. Pompey, aroused to a sense of his danger, and aware that he could not resist Cæsar in Rome, led such forces as he could command into Macedonia where he took measures to increase his army. Cæsar, in the meantime, having made himself master of Italy, entered Rome in triumph, amidst the acclamation of the people, and assumed at once the supreme power.

7. He did not remain inactive. He shortly after passed over into Spain, where he defeated Pompey's lieutenants, and brought the whole country under his control. Returning to Rome, he was received with enthusiasm, and created dictator and consul.

8. Pompey had by this time collected a large army, and Cæsar, anxious to bring his antagonist to a decisive engagement, proceeded with his forces to Macedonia. The two armies met on the plains of Pharsalia, where an obstinate and tremendous battle was fought, ending in the utter defeat of Pompey. B.C. 48.

9. Pompey, now completely prostrated, became a miserable fugitive, and, accompanied by his wife and a few attendants, fled to Egypt, seeking protection from Ptolemy, king of that country, whose father he had befriended. But just previous to his landing, he was basely murdered, and his body was thrown exposed upon the sea-shore.

10. Cæsar in the meantime followed the ill-fated

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Pompey to Egypt. On his arrival there, the head of his great rival was presented to him. The sight, whilst it struck him with horror, called up the generous feelings of his nature; he remembered with tears their former friendship, and honoured the virtues of his foe by the erection of a splendid monument to his memory.

11. The throne of Egypt was at this time occupied by Ptolemy and his sister, the celebrated Cleopatra, the latter of whom aspired to undivided authority. Cæsar, whilst there, becoming captivated by the charms of the beautiful queen, threw the weight of his power in her favour, and procured for her the object of her ambition.

12. From Egypt Cæsar was called into Asia Minor, in consequence of a revolt in the provinces there, headed by Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates. He met Pharnaces at Zela, conquered him with much ease, and so speedily suppressed the rebellion, that in his despatch to the senate at Rome he used only the words—"*Veni, vidi, vici*,"—"I came, I saw, I conquered."

13. Cæsar having returned to Rome, was soon called into Africa, where Cato and Scipio, adherents of Pompey's party, had collected a large force against him. He met his opponents, and, in the battle of Thapsus, gained a complete victory over them. Cato soon after, in despair, killed himself, to escape falling into the hands of his enemies.

14. Returning again to Rome, Cæsar celebrated a splendid triumph, intoxicated the people with pompous shows and magnificent feasts, and gained the affections of his fellow-citizens and the soldiery by his munificent liberality and rich rewards. In return for this, so popular had he become, that the people cheerfully yielded up their liberties, hailed him father of his country, and made him perpetual dictator.

15. Standing thus without a rival, and invested with supreme power, Cæsar was far from abusing his

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authority. He devoted his attention to the prosperity and happiness of the people, administered the government in the most equable and beneficent manner, and proved that he was no less a statesman than a warrior.

16. It having been rumoured, however, that he aspired to the title of king, and that he would assume it on a certain day, a conspiracy was formed against him, composed of sixteen senators, headed by Brutus and Cassius. On the day alluded to, the conspirators attacked Cæsar, in the senate-house, with their daggers, and assassinated him. He fell, pierced with twenty-three wounds, in the 56th year of his age. B.C. 44.

17. Julius Cæsar, whose career was thus ended, was one of the most extraordinary men spoken of in history. As a warrior, a statesman, an orator, and an historian, he was pre-eminently distinguished. Rising unaided, save by his own genius and indomitable perseverance, from the ranks of private life, he won his way, through a dazzling career of victory, to the summit of political power, and, in the end, stood the undisputed master of the civilized world. His faults were many. His vaulting ambition, and his criminal designs against the liberties of his country, have left a foul blot upon his fame; but the clemency and moderation which, on all occasions, even when invested with supreme authority, characterized his actions, cannot be too much admired. His historical writings have never been excelled; and at his death he left memorials of great and wise plans for the extension of the empire and the legislation of the world, which prove the splendid endowments of his mind, and the lofty promptings of his ambition.

18. The conspirators, in killing this great man, were far from preserving the liberties of Rome. In fact, Cæsar yet lived in the hearts of his countrymen; and when Mark Antony exposed his bleeding remains in the Forum, all his faults were forgotten—nothing was

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remembered but his heroism, his munificence, and his humanity. The dead and mangled body of Cæsar created a powerful convulsion. The indignant and infuriated people arose against the murderers, who, to avoid destruction, fled from the city.

19. The government of the commonwealth shortly afterwards fell into the hands of the celebrated league, known as the Second Triumvirate, which was composed of Mark Antony, Octavius Cæsar, afterwards surnamed Augustus, the adopted heir of Julius Cæsar, and Lepidus.

20. The consequences which followed were most deplorable. A horrible compact, entered into among themselves, was the origin of an inhuman proscription, by which numerous Roman knights and senators were sacrificed to the malice of the Triumvirs. The celebrated orator, Cicero, was among those who perished.

21. Brutus and Cassius having fled to Thrace, and with the determination to restore the commonwealth, collected an army of 100,000 men, Antony and Octavius pursued them with a still larger force. The two armies met at Philippi, in Thrace. Here a battle was fought which decided the fate of the empire. Brutus and Cassius were utterly defeated. To escape from their enemies, they perished by their own hands. B.C. 42.

22. The Triumvirate did not long exist. Octavius, aspiring to supreme dominion, procured the banishment of Lepidus. Subsequently, the conduct of Antony, in connexion with Cleopatra, the Egyptian queen, having given Octavius a pretext to charge Antony with neglect to his wife, Octavia, the sister of Octavius, a war broke out between them, which resulted in the defeat of Antony in the naval battle of Actium. B.C. 31.

23. The consequences of this celebrated battle were of momentous importance. Antony destroyed himself in Alexandria; Cleopatra, the last of the Ptolemies,

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having aided him in the war, procured death from the sting of an asp. Egypt was reduced to a Roman province. Octavius was left the sole master of the Roman world, and the Roman republic was no more.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION IV.

1. Who were the three most powerful men at this period? What is said of them?
2. What design did they form? How did they distribute the provinces?
3. What became of Crassus? What is said of Cæsar?
4. What is said of Pompey? What was done at his instigation? What course did Cæsar resolve on?
5. To what place did Cæsar lead his troops? What did he then do?
6. What course did Pompey take? What did Cæsar do in the meantime?
7. What next step did he take?
8. What occurred afterwards?
9. What became of Pompey?
10. What is said of Cæsar in the meantime?
11. By whom was the throne of Egypt occupied at this time? What did Cæsar do whilst there?
12. Whither did Cæsar go from Egypt, and for what purpose?
13. What happened after his return from the expedition?
14. What happened when Cæsar again returned to Rome?
15. What is said of Cæsar at this period?
16. What is the account of Cæsar's death?
17. What is said of Julius Cæsar and his character?
18. What happened after the death of Cæsar?
19. Into whose hands did the government fall shortly after?
20. What is said of the consequences?
21. Whither did Brutus and Cassius fly, and what followed?
22. What became of the Triumvirate afterwards?
23. What were the consequences of the battle of Actium?

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## SECTION V.

*From the Battle of Actium*, 31 B.C., *to the Extinction of the Western Empire of the Romans*, 476 A.C.

1. OCTAVIUS being now master of the lives and fortunes of the Roman people, assumed, under the name of Augustus, the title and office of emperor. He, however, acted with great caution and prudence; and whilst he changed the nature of the government, he lulled suspicion and silenced opposition by retaining the republican forms.

2. Treacherous and cruel as had been the conduct of Augustus during the Triumvirate, as emperor his character appears in a different light. He cherished the arts of peace, and promoted the welfare of his subjects; and by governing with much wisdom and moderation, succeeded in gradually consolidating the supreme authority he had usurped. His reign is celebrated as the golden period of Roman literature and arts.

3. In the twenty-sixth year of the reign of Augustus, our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST was born.

4. Augustus was succeeded in the empire by Tiberius, an odious and cruel tyrant. His reign lasted twenty-two years, and ended in his being poisoned or strangled by one of his favourites.

5. In the eighteenth year of the reign of Tiberius, our Saviour JESUS CHRIST suffered death on the cross.

6. Tiberius was succeeded by Caligula, a most despicable tyrant, whose conduct was marked by profligacy, cruelty, madness, and folly. He was assassinated after a reign of four years.

7. He was succeeded by Claudius, his cowardly and imbecile uncle. The life of this emperor, marked by profligate vices, was shortened by Agrippina, his wife, who poisoned him to make way for her son Nero. He reigned fourteen years.

8. Nero, of all the Roman emperors, was the most

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notorious for profligacy and tyranny. Among the numerous victims who suffered death by his cruelty, were his own mother, his wife, his tutor, Seneca, the philosopher, and the poet Lucan. He caused the city of Rome to be set on fire, through mere wantonness; and having charged the act upon the Christians, who were already numerous, gave rise to the first of the ten terrible persecutions against them. It was during this persecution that St. Peter and St. Paul, the Apostles, were martyred. Nero, having been overthrown by a conspiracy which his odious crimes had brought against him, killed himself in the fourteenth year of his reign.

9. After the death of Nero, Galba was proclaimed emperor, but was killed after a reign of seven months. He was succeeded by Otho, who, having been defeated by his rival, Vitellius, slew himself, after a reign of only ninety-five days. Vitellius then mounted the throne, but was assassinated before he had completed the first year of his reign.

10. Vespasian was now proclaimed emperor by the army. He was an able sovereign, and was distinguished for his affability, clemency, and firmness. His reign is memorable for the destruction of Jerusalem, which was effected by the Romans under the command of Titus, the son of Vespasian, after a siege of six months. B.C. 70. Vespasian died after a reign of ten years.

11. He was succeeded by his son Titus, who, on account of his amiability, justice, and humanity, obtained the appellation of the "Delight of Mankind." During his reign, which lasted three years, the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii were overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

12. Domitian, the brother and successor of Titus, was another monster of vice and cruelty. His reign is noted for the conquest of Britain, and the second of the ten persecutions against the Christians. He was assassinated at the instigation of his wife.

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13. Domitian was the last of those emperors who are styled the twelve Cæsars—Julius Cæsar being considered the first, though Augustus was the first generally named emperor, and Nero was, in reality, the last of the family of Augustus. Augustus, Vespasian, and Titus were the only ones of these emperors who died natural deaths.

14. Domitian was succeeded by Nerva, an aged but virtuous prince. He reigned but sixteen months, and was succeeded by Trajan.

15. Trajan was a great and virtuous man. He defeated the Dacians and Parthians, and brought under subjection Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia Felix. During his reign the boundaries of the Roman Empire were more extensive than either before or after. He died A.C. 117. In his reign the third of the persecutions against the Christians took place.

16. Trajan was succeeded by his nephew, Adrian, who was also an able sovereign, and, generally speaking, beneficent and equitable in his government. He was a liberal patron of the arts, and spent thirteen years in visiting personally the extensive dominions over which he was placed. He died in the twenty-first year of his reign.

17. He was succeeded by Titus Antoninus, who, on account of his virtues and his love of religion and justice, was surnamed Pius. He enjoyed a peaceful reign of twenty-three years.

18. He was succeeded by his son-in-law, Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, surnamed the Philosopher. This excellent sovereign is esteemed the best model of pagan virtue among the Roman emperors. Remarkable as he was in this respect, however, such was the determined opposition to Christianity, that during his reign the fourth of the ten persecutions was permitted to spend its fury. Aurelius reigned nineteen years.

19. He was the last of the sovereigns styled "The Five Good Emperors;" and the glory and prosperity of the Roman people appeared to perish with him.

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From his reign to that of Diocletian, a period of 104 years, there were twenty-two emperors; most of their reigns being very short, and alike disastrous to the rulers and their subjects. All these sovereigns, save three, were cut off by assassination, or some other form of violent death. The empire, in fact, was torn by ambitious and cruel factions; and, no longer sustained by the patriotism, virtue, and energy which had reared it, was fast hastening to its downfall.

20. During this period the fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth of the ten persecutions of the Christians took place, under the emperors Severus, Maximinus, Decius, Valerian, and Aurelian.

21. Diocletian, who succeeded Aurelian in 284 A.C., was originally a Dalmatian slave, but rose, by his great merit as a soldier, from the ranks to the head of the army, and next to the imperial throne. Being opposed by numerous enemies, he associated with himself in the empire his friend Maximian; and subsequently two other colleagues were taken, who were styled Cæsars. All these, however, were controlled by Diocletian. During this reign, A.C. 303, the tenth and last, and also the bloodiest of the persecutions, was directed against the Christians. Soon after Diocletian abdicated the throne, after a reign of twenty years, and died eight years afterwards.

22. On the abdication of Diocletian, Maximian having also withdrawn, the government of the empire passed into the hands of the two Cæsars, Constantius and Galerius. Constantius dying, left his son, Constantine, as his successor; and Galerius also dying shortly after, Constantine, surnamed the Great, became sole master of the empire, A.C. 310.

23. Constantine has the honour of being enrolled as the first Christian emperor, and also of putting an end to the long and bloody persecutions of the Christians. His reign forms an important era in ecclesiastical history, as the government became the protector of the religion which it had repeatedly and cruelly persecuted.

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24. Another important event in this reign was the removal of the seat of the empire from Rome to Byzantium, a city which shortly afterwards received the name of Constantinople, in honour of the emperor. Constantine reigned thirty-one years.

25. He was succeeded by his son, Constantius, who had a weak and unfortunate reign of twenty-four years, during which the empire was harassed by the inroads of the barbarians from the north.

26. He was succeeded by Julian, surnamed the Apostate, on account of his abandoning Christianity, and becoming a pagan. He endeavoured to suppress the Christian religion, and attempted to re-assemble the Jews, and rebuild their temple. He was miraculously defeated in his design.

27. Julian was succeeded by Jovian, who restored the Christian religion. After a reign of seven months, he was succeeded by Valentinian, who associated with himself his brother Valens, giving him the eastern provinces, a measure which finally separated the empire into eastern and western.

28. Valentinian was succeeded by his son, Gratian, who, on the death of Valens, associated with himself Theodosius, afterwards surnamed the Great. After the death of Gratian and his brother, Valentinian II., Theodosius became sole master of the empire. His reign is distinguished for the complete establishment of Christianity and the downfall of paganism. He was the last sovereign who presided over the whole empire; and, after a reign of eighteen years, was succeeded by his sons, Honorius and Arcadius. The former became emperor of the western empire, the seat of which was at Rome, and the latter became emperor of the eastern empire, the seat of which was at Constantinople. A.C. 395.

29. Long before this period, the barbarians of the north had commenced making inroads into various portions of the empire. But at this time, emboldened by previous successes, their irruptions assumed a

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most threatening and destructive character. These barbarians, consisting of various tribes in Germany, Scythia, and other nations to the north and east, commonly called Goths, Huns, Vandals, &c., seemed inexhaustible in their numbers, and poured, like an incessant torrent, upon the enfeebled and distracted empire.

30. At length a vast army of Goths, under Alaric, their king, invaded Italy; and having taken and pillaged several cities, besieged the great city of Rome, which was finally reduced to submission, and became a prey to the licentious fury of the barbarous hordes of Germany and Scythia. The pillage lasted six days, and multitudes of the inhabitants were massacred. A.C. 410.

31. Some years after the sacking of Rome by Alaric, the Huns (a barbarous people from the east), under the command of Attila, who was styled "the scourge of God," poured in upon the empire, marking their path with rapine and desolation; and having penetrated to the gates of Rome, compelled the emperor, Valentinian III., to purchase an inglorious peace. A.C. 445.

32. Afterwards the Vandals, a fierce horde of barbarians, under Genseric, took the city of Rome, which, for eleven days, was given up to pillage, and was plundered of everything that had escaped the ravages of the Goths.

33. The Western Empire, now exhausted, weakened, and degraded, was left an open and easy prey to the fierce and hardy spirits which surrounded it. At length, Odoacer, the chief of the Heruli, having vanquished the weak emperor, Romulus Augustulus, put an end to the western empire of the Romans, and assumed the title of King of Italy. A.C. 476. From this period the history of Rome merges into that of Italy.

34. Thus fell the Western Empire of the Romans, piece by piece, like a colossal edifice from which time

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daily detaches a stone. It is remarkable that Romulus was the first King of Rome, and that the last lord of the falling empire should have called himself the same name; that the first Roman emperor was named Augustus, and that the last should call himself, as if in mockery, Augustulus.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION V.

1. What is said of Octavius?
2. What is said of his character as triumvir and as emperor? What is said of his reign?
3. What happened in the twenty-sixth year of his reign?
4. Who succeeded Augustus?
5. What happened in the eighteenth year of the reign of Tiberius?
6. Who succeeded Tiberius?
7. Who succeeded Caligula?
8. What is said of Nero? What were some of his acts?
9. What happened after the death of Nero?
10. What next occurred? What is said of Vespasian? What happened in his reign?
11. Who succeeded Vespasian? What is said of him? What happened during his reign?
12. What is said of Domitian, and what happened in his reign?
13. Who was the last of the twelve Cæsars? What is said of these emperors?
14. Who succeeded Domitian?
15. What is said of Trajan? What happened in his reign?
16. Who succeeded Trajan? What is said of Adrian?
17. Who succeeded Adrian? What is said of him?
18. Who succeeded Titus Antoninus? What is said of him? What occurred in his reign?
19. Who was the last of the five good emperors? What is said of the period between his reign and that of Diocletian?
20. What happened during this period?
21. What is said of Diocletian? What happened during his reign?
22. What happened after the abdication of Diocletian?
23. What is said of Constantine and his reign?

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24. What was another important event in this reign?
25. Who succeeded Constantine, and what is said of his reign?
26. Who succeeded Constantius, and what is said of him?
27. Who succeeded Julian? Who succeeded Jovian, and what then happened?
28. Who succeeded Valentinian? What happened after the death of Valens? What happened after the death of Gratian? What distinguished the reign of Theodosius? Who succeeded Theodosius, and what division took place?
29. What had happened long before this period? What occurred at this period?
30. What is said of the Goths, under Alaric?
31. What happened some years afterwards?
32. What happened afterwards?
33. What is said of the Western Empire at this time? How, by whom, and when was it ended?
34. What is said of the fall of the Western Empire, and what circumstance is noticed as remarkable?

## CHAPTER IX.

### ILLUSTRIOUS MEN OF ANCIENT HISTORY.

1. HAVING concluded the "Outlines of Ancient History," it may be useful to mention a few of the most distinguished characters, not before referred to, whose minds and actions have adorned its annals.

2. Amongst the Israelites, or Jews, there were few, if any, of their great men distinguished for science or philosophy. The most of their prophetical writers flourished in the eighth, seventh, and sixth centuries before Christ. Of these, Isaias was the greatest. He was of the lineage of David, and prophesied from 735 to 681 B.C.

3. Confucius, the celebrated Chinese philosopher, lived about 551 B.C.

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4. The Greeks were the most eminent of all ancient nations in literature, philosophy, and the arts. The most of their classic writers flourished in the fifth, fourth, and third centuries before Christ, though literature continued to be long cultivated long after they were conquered by the Romans.

5. Homer and Hesiod, the first Grecian poets, flourished about 907 B.C. The great poems of the former, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, will endure for ever. Few of the works of the latter are extant. Among the subsequent distinguished poets of Greece we may mention Sappho, the inventress of the Sapphic verse; Anacreon and Pindar, the lyric poets; Theocritus, the father of pastoral poetry; and Æschylus, the father of tragedy.

6. The most eminent Grecian historians were—Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Polybius, and Diodorus Siculus.

7. The most eminent of Grecian philosophers were —Thales, founder of the Ionic sect; Pythagoras founder of the Pythagorean sect; Socrates, founder of the Socratic sect; Plato, founder of the Academic sect; Aristotle, founder of the Peripatetic sect; Pyrrho, founder of the Sceptics; Epicurus, of the Epicureans; and Zeno, of the Stoics. Of these, Aristotle and Plato have exercised the greatest influence over the minds of men in all ages.

8. Among the eminent men of science may be mentioned Hippocrates, the father of medicine; Euclid, the great master of mathematics; and Apolodorus, the grammarian.

9. The most flourishing period of Roman literature comprised the century immediately preceding and following the Christian era.

10. The Romans were not so much inclined to philosophical speculations as the Greeks. The most eminent of all their philosophers, as well as orators, was Cicero.

11. Among their poets may be mentioned Virgil,

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who holds the first rank; Lucretius, Horace, Ovid, and Juvenal.

12. Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus are some of the most eminent Latin historians.

13. The Christian Fathers flourished in the second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries after Christ. Some of the most distinguished of them are Origen, Cyprian, Chrysostom, Jerome, and Augustine.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IX.

1. What may be useful at this point?
2. What is said of the great men among the Israelites or Jews?
3. What is said of Confucius?
4. What is said of the Greeks?
5. What is said of Homer and Hesiod? Name other Grecian poets.
6. Who were the most eminent Grecian historians?
7. Who were the most eminent Grecian philosophers? What is said of Aristotle and Plato?
8. Who were some of the most eminent men of science among the Greeks?
9. What was the most flourishing period of Roman literature?
10. What is said of the Romans? Who was their great philosopher?
11. Mention some of their poets.
12. Who are some of their most eminent historians?
13. When did the Christian Fathers flourish? Name some of the most distinguished.



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PART SECOND.

# THE MIDDLE AGES.

## CHAPTER I.

1. ACCORDING to the division of history we hav adopted, the history of the middle ages comprises a period of nearly one thousand years, from the fall of the Western Empire of the Romans, A.C. 476, to the extinction of the Eastern Empire, in the year 1453.

2. There is no period of history which has been more misrepresented than this—none concerning which there exists less correct general information. The vulgar story is, that they were ages of intellectual gloom and darkness, in which debasing superstition, priestcraft, social and moral slavery, and political tyranny, alone ruled the destinies of Europe, degrading the minds, corrupting the hearts, and destroying the energies of men. But this partial and unjust judgment must be reversed by the more liberal spirit with which the history of those ages is investigated at the present day.

3. It is true that the early portion of the middle ages was characterized, to a great extent, by a state of barbarism, ignorance, and disorder, which presents a sad picture when viewed through the light of the present day, or when contrasted with the brilliant age of Augustus. But that state was the gradual and natural result of a long train of circumstances, commencing during the reigns of the later Roman emperors, in the corruption of morals, manners, and taste; the decline

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of literature, art, and science; the life of licentiousness and vice, and the consequent depression of intellect; and ending in the inundations of the barbarians from the north and east, which swept away, in their resistless course, almost all the landmarks of civilization, involving in a common ruin the most splendid monuments of ancient genius and wisdom.

4. Even during this gloomy period, however, and amidst the destructive wars which were incessantly waged amongst the fierce barbarians, contending for the ascendency of their respective tribes throughout the conquered provinces, the heart expands with hope and joy in gazing upon the sublime attitude of the Christian Church. She alone can claim to be the conservator of civilization; she alone—snatching from destruction the fragments of that splendid literature which she has handed down to the present age, and preserving with divine fortitude and courage the sacred records of Christianity—breasted the fierce waves of barbarism, and rode proudly over the general ruin, the ark of a future age of refinement and civilization.

5. The middle ages may be considered as a period of gradual transition from the barbarism, anarchy, and disorder which arose on the ruins of Roman civilization, to the refinement of manners, the revival of literature and art, the re-establishment of order, which produced the splendid progress in every branch of human knowledge that illustrates modern history.

6. Through that transition—marked, as it was, by barbarous customs, bloody warfare, and fierce and violent convulsions—the nations of Europe were led and guided by the Christian Church, which, true to her divine character and sacred mission, throughout the whole of that long and eventful period stands out in bold relief—ever in the foreground—ever teaching, curbing, governing, bringing to order and humanizing the fierce and turbulent world around her.

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7. In fact, the great power of the Church in these ages is one of the most prominent features of the period. It was, however, a beneficent and restraining power, exercised in favour of the oppressed against tyrannical oppression—teaching the principles of morality—inculcating order, and instituting laws—founding schools—ameliorating the condition of the enslaved—encouraging the mild arts of peace, and proclaiming the Gospel of love and mercy.

8. During those much misrepresented ages, arose some of the greatest men who had ever lived, distinguished as statesmen, historians, philosophers, warriors, poets, and artists; and to those ages the world is indebted for many of the most important discoveries and useful inventions, among which may be mentioned the invention of gunpowder and the art of printing.

9. It was during these ages that the vast cathedrals, the architectural magnificence of which strikes the beholder with awe and wonder, were erected; and that the masterpieces of art and poetry from Raphael, Domenichino, Dante, Petrarch, Tasso, Chaucer, and others, were produced: and it was from these ages that, in the common law and the great principles of Magna Charta, our own political and civil institutions have derived some of their brightest and most invaluable principles.

10. There are many points in the history of the middle ages of great interest; but they were particularly distinguished for the prevalence of the feudal system, the Crusades, or holy wars, and the institution of chivalry; also, for the rise and fall of the Saracen Empire, which forms the subject of the next chapter.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER I.

1. What does the history of the middle ages comprise?
2. What is said of this period of history? What is the vulgar story concerning it?

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3. What is said of the early portion of this period? To what was this state of things owing?
4. What produces hope in the midst of this gloomy period? What is said of the Christian Church?
5. What may the middle ages be considered?
6. What led and guided the nations of Europe through this transition?
7. What is one of the most prominent features of the period? What was the character of the power exercised by the Church?
8. What arose during those ages, and for what is the world indebted to them?
9. What were other circumstances which rendered those ages remarkable?
10. For what were those ages particularly distinguished?

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## CHAPTER II.

### THE SARACEN EMPIRE.

*Its Rise and Fall: from* A.C. 622 *to* 1258.

1. AFTER the downfall of the Western Empire of the Romans, the Eastern Empire continued to linger through a weak and degenerate existence for several centuries. But, in the meantime, towards the end of the sixth century after Christ, a new dominion arose in the east which was destined to produce a powerful change on a great portion of the world. This was the empire which was reared by Mahomet, the celebrated impostor, and his successors, and known in history as the Saracen Empire.

2. The Saracens were originally a rude and illiterate people, living in the northern and western parts of Arabia; but their name was afterwards applied to most of the Arabian nations. They lived in independent tribes, leading a roving and predatory life, and had become, by selling their services as mercenaries, alternately the support and terror of the tottering empires of Rome and Persia. Such was their

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character when Mahomet, a native of Mecca, appeared, and commenced his extraordinary career.

3. He was a man of no education, but of great natural talents. He undertook to establish a new religion, which he pretended he received by special revelation from heaven, and the principles of which were collected in a volume, styled the Koran. His followers styled themselves Mussulmans or Moslems; and their two leading doctrines are, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet." Mahomet, though he adopted some of the Christian principles of morality, and retained many of the rites of Judaism, owed his success chiefly to his allowing his followers much licentious indulgence, and to his promising them, as their reward, a future paradise of sensual pleasures.

4. Mahomet at first had little success. After three years of exertion he had made only fourteen converts; and, in consequence of a tumult raised against him, he was obliged to save his life by flight, and escaped from Mecca to Medina. This flight, called the Hegira, is the Mahometan era, and took place in the year A.C. 622.

5. He was carried into Medina in triumph, and there subsequently assumed the regal and sacerdotal office. He afterwards put himself at the head of an army of his converts, and commenced to propagate his religion by the sword, proclaiming that "to fight for the faith was an act of obedience to God," and promising a martyr's crown to all who should fall in battle. He fought in person in nine battles, subdued all Arabia, extended his conquests to Syria, and, after a career of victory, died at Medina. A.C. 632.

6. Mahomet was succeeded by his father-in-law Abubeker, who is styled the first caliph—that is, successor, or vicar. He pursued a course of conquest, invaded Syria, and took the cities of Bostria, Palmyra, and Damascus.

7. He was succeeded by Omar, during whose rule,

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which lasted ten years, the Mahometans subdued 36,000 cities, demolished 4,000 Christian churches, and erected 1,400 mosques for Mahometan worship. Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, Chaldea, Persia, and Egypt, were also reduced to submission. The conquest of Egypt was attended by the wanton destruction of the famous library of Alexandria, containing upwards of 500,000 volumes. Omar was assassinated in the year 644.

8. He was succeeded by Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet, who is regarded as one of the bravest and most virtuous of the caliphs. During his reign, which was short but glorious, a schism took place among the followers of Mahomet, which exists to this day, and divides them into two sects—the Shyhites, or sect of Ali, and the Sonnites or Ottomans. The Persians are of the sect of Ali, the Turks are Sonnites and Ottomans.

9. Ali removed the seat of the caliphate from Mecca to Cufa, on the Euphrates; and in the year 768 it was removed by Almansor to Bagdad. Hence, the Mussulman sovereigns are styled caliphs of Bagdad.

10. So rapid and extensive were the conquests of the Saracens, that in one century from the Hegira, or flight of Mahomet, their dominions extended from India, over Persia, Syria, Asia Minor, Arabia, Egypt, and the north of Africa, to the Atlantic, and included, also, the best portion of Spain, where, in the city of Cordova, was established a caliphate, which, next to that of Bagdad, was the most illustrious in Saracenic history.

11. The first race of caliphs was styled Ommiades, and the second race, Abbasides, from Abbas, the uncle of Mahomet. Almansor, the second caliph of the house of Abbas, and founder of Bagdad, is distinguished for having been the first to introduce and encourage the cultivation of the sciences among the Saracens.

12. Haroun Al Raschid, the twenty-fifth caliph, who had flourished about the year 869, and was a

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contemporary of Charlemagne, made Bagdad illustrious by the successful cultivation of the arts and sciences. His reign is considered the golden age of Saracenic or Arabic literature. The sciences chiefly cultivated were medicine, geometry, and astronomy; also poetry and fiction.

13. The Saracenic Empire, during the early and most flourishing period of its existence, was subject to one head; but it was at length broken into many parts, and commenced to decline as early as in the ninth century.

14. Bagdad continued the seat of the Saracen Empire for 490 years, during which period it sustained several obstinate sieges, and was convulsed by many bloody revolutions. At length, in the 656th year of the Hegira, A.C. 1258, Bagdad was taken by Hula Ku, the grandson of the celebrated Genghis Khan; the reigning caliph was put to death, the caliphate was abolished, and the Saracen Empire terminated.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER II.

1. What is said of the Eastern Empire after the fall of the Western? What arose in the meantime?
2. What is said of the Saracens?
3. What is said of Mahomet? What did he undertake? What is said of the nature of his doctrines?
4. What was Mahomet's success at first? What is his flight called, and when did it take place?
5. How was he received at Medina? What occurred afterwards?
6. Who succeeded Mahomet, and what is said of him?
7. Who succeeded Abubeker? What occurred during his reign?
8. Who succeeded Omar? What occurred during Ali's reign?
9. What did Ali do touching the seat of the caliphate? When and to what place was it removed by Almansor?
10. What is said of the conquests of the Saracens?

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11. What were the first and second races of the caliphs styled? What is said of Almansor?
12. What is said of Haroun Al Raschid? What sciences were chiefly cultivated?
13. What is said of the Saracen Empire?
14. What is said of Bagdad? What took place in the year 1258?

## CHAPTER III.

### THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. THE feudal system, which formed so essential a feature in the social and political condition of Europe during the middle ages, had its origin among the barbarous tribes—the Goths, Huns, Vandals, Lombards, etc.—that overran the provinces on the decline of the Roman Empire.

2. In those turbulent times, when the long-established laws and usages of the Roman government were swept away, the rude and warlike conquerors seized upon the rich lands of the empire. These lands were distributed among them by lot: hence they were called allotted, or allodial; and they were held by the different chieftains in complete sovereignty, without any obligation existing between them, save that of uniting in case of war, for the common defence.

3. The king, or leader of each tribe, of course received by far the larger portions of the conquered territory as his share. These he parcelled or granted out to his principal followers, who, in consideration of such grant, bound themselves merely to render him certain military services when required.

4. The example of the king, or leader, was imitated by those to whom these grants were made. They likewise parcelled out their estates to their dependents, requiring in return therefor military services. Thus

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a feudal kingdom became a great military establishment, being a collection of independent chieftains, each surrounded by his own retainers, and all bound to one head chief by the single obligation to yield him military service in his wars.

5. It will be perceived that the fundamental principle of the system was, that all the lands in the kingdom were originally granted out by the sovereign, and were held of the crown. The grantor was called lord; those to whom he made grants of land were called feudatories, or vassals, and the tenure was called feud, feod, or fee. The military service, which was the condition upon which the feudatories held their lands, was in keeping with the unsettled and warlike spirit of the age, and was esteemed honourable.

6. The great mass of the people who cultivated the lands were called serfs, villeins, or bondsmen, and were in a state of miserable servitude. They were not allowed to bear arms, or to leave the estates of their lords.

7. The feudal system, though well calculated for defence, was very defective in its provisions for the inferior order of society. The bond of union being feeble, and the sources of discord numerous, a kingdom often exhibited scenes of anarchy, turbulence, and war; and, in fact, from the ninth to the eleventh century, Europe was in a constant state of contention.

8. So great and numerous were the social evils flowing from this source, that several bishops of the Church, finding no other means of resisting them, ordered, under pain of excommunication, that during four days of every week, from the afternoon of Wednesday to the morning of the following Monday, whatever might be the cause of strife or quarrel, all private hostilities should cease. The same prohibition was afterwards extended to the whole time of Advent and Lent. This beneficial institution, which was termed the truce of God, originated in France, about the year 1040. It was adopted in England, Spain,

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etc., and was productive of the most remarkable and salutary results.

9. The feudal system was adopted in France by Charlemagne, and by most of the princes of Europe. It was introduced into England by William the Conqueror.

10. Some of the principal causes of its decline and general extinction were the Crusades, the formation of cities into communities, the change in the mode of war produced by the invention of gunpowder, the extension of commerce, the increase and distribution of wealth, and the diffusion of knowledge.

11. Remnants of the feudal system still exist, however, in some parts of Europe, particularly in Russia and portions of Germany.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER III.

1. What is said of the origin of the feudal system?
2. In what manner was its establishment in Europe commenced?
3. What is said of the king, or leader, of each tribe? How did he dispose of his lands?
4. By whom, and how, was his example followed? What is said of a feudal kingdom?
5. What was the fundamental principle of this system? What were the grantor and those to whom the grants were made called? What is said of the military service?
6. What is said of the great mass of the people?
7. What is said of the feudal system?
8. What was done for the purpose of checking the disasters flowing from the system? What was the institution styled, and what is said of it?
9. Where was the feudal system adopted?
10. What were some of the principal causes of its decline and extinction?
11. Where do remnants of the system still exist?

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# CHAPTER IV.

## THE CRUSADES.

*From their commencement,* A.C. 1095, *to their termination,* A.C. 1262.

1. THE Crusades were military expeditions, undertaken by the Christian nations of Western Europe, for the purpose of delivering Palestine, or the Holy Land, from the power of the Mahometans.

2. The motives which urged the nations of Europe to engage in these expeditions were numerous and forcible. On the one hand, the richest and most valuable portions of Western Asia had fallen into the hands of the Seljukian Turks, a fierce race of Tartars, who now threatened to precipitate their barbarous hordes upon the shores of Europe, and so harassed the Eastern Empire, that Alexis Commenus, the reigning emperor, urgently called for assistance from the west. On the other hand, the daily recitals of the revolting cruelties and oppressions exercised by the Arabs and Turks, in Palestine, against the Christians, whether there as residents or as pilgrims visiting the places rendered sacred by the sufferings of our Redeemer, had aroused in the heart of Christendom a feeling of pious indignation, and a burning desire to relieve their persecuted brethren, and wrest the consecrated soil of Palestine from the hands of the infidel.

3. In the midst of this state of things, Peter, a French priest, surnamed the Hermit, bearing with him from Palestine ample testimony of the cruel oppression he had witnessed, and urgent appeals to the Pope and the princes of Europe from Simeon, the pious Patriarch of Jerusalem, returned to Europe with the determination of calling Christendom to arms. Received with kindness by the Pope, Urban II., and

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commissioned by him to preach everywhere in favour of delivering Jerusalem, Peter, by his zeal and eloquence, soon roused such an enthusiasm in favour of the undertaking, that all Europe appeared to be in arms. This was the origin of the first Crusade, which was decided upon at the Council of Clermont, in France, in the year 1095. Those who engaged in the expedition wore, as a mark of their engagement, a cross made of red stuff, and fastened on the right shoulder. Hence the names Crusader and Crusade.

4. Early in the year A.C. 1096, the vast army of the crusaders, amounting, it is said, to upwards of 700,000 men, commenced their march towards the East, in two divisions, and in different directions. Among the many princes who commanded this host, the celebrated Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorrain, held the most prominent place.

5. The first division, much smaller than the second, was led by Peter the Hermit in person; and being destitute of the subordination and discipline so necessary in large armies, met with many and most disastrous reverses. A large portion was slain on the route through Hungary and Bulgaria, and the remainder, on reaching Asia, was met on the plains of Nice by the Sultan Solyman, and completely defeated.

6. The second division, commanded chiefly by Godfrey, and Baldwin, Earl of Flanders, reached Constantinople in safety. Passing over to the Asiatic coast, the crusaders pursued a career of victory, reducing several cities, and finally, after defeating an army of 600,000 Saracens, marched upon the city of Jerusalem. After a siege of forty days, the Christian forces triumphed: they took the city, and proclaimed Godfrey King of Jerusalem. Soon after, the crusaders, under Godfrey, defeated another Saracen army, 400,000 strong, near Ascalon. A.C. 1099.

7. The Mahometans having gradually recovered their strength, and the crusaders who remained in Asia having been compelled to solicit aid from Christendom

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the second Crusade was preached by the celebrated Abbot of Clairvaux, St. Bernard. This Crusade was led by Louis VII., King of France, and Conrad III., Emperor of Germany. It was completely unsuccessful. The crusaders set out in the year 1147, and in the course of two years met with such reverses and ruinous defeats as to render all their efforts entirely abortive.

8. The Mahometans, under the celebrated Saladin, having, in the year 1187, wrested from the Christians the city of Jerusalem, and nearly the whole of Palestine, a third Crusade was undertaken in the year following. The leaders of this expedition were the three distinguished sovereigns—Philip Augustus, King of France; Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Leon, of England; and Frederick Barbarossa, Emperor of Germany.

9. The Emperor Frederick was drowned in Cilicia; Philip Augustus, after having, in conjunction with Richard, taken Ptolemais, quarrelled with his rival, and shortly after returned home in disgust, leaving the chief command solely to Richard.

10. Richard ably sustained the contest against the splendid talents of Saladin, whom he defeated near Ascalon. But his army became reduced by famine, fatigue, and destructive divisions. Returning through Germany, alone and in disguise, he was arrested, and kept in prison, till he was ransomed by his subjects. A.C. 1194.

11. On the death of Saladin, which took place soon after, great civil dissensions distracted the Mahometans, and the occasion was seized for the prosecuting a fourth Crusade. At the head of this expedition was Baldwin, Count of Flanders. But before reaching the Holy Land, the throne of the Eastern Empire at Constantinople having been seized by a usurper, the crusaders were induced, by the promises of the son of the dethroned emperor, to exert their power for the purpose of restoring his father.

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12. Accordingly, they turned their Venetian galleys in that direction, and after severe resistance took the city of Constantinople by storm. The usurper fled, and the old emperor re-ascended the throne. Shortly after, however, the emperor and his son fell victims to the perfidy and intrigues of their enemies, and the throne was seized by another usurper. Thereupon the crusaders attacked the imperial city a second time, and once more carried it by storm. The usurper made his escape from the city during the night; and Baldwin, the intrepid leader of the enterprise, was elevated to the imperial throne, of which he and his countrymen kept possession for fifty-seven years. This event took place in the year A.C. 1204.

13. The fifth Crusade was shortly after undertaken. It was principally conducted by John of Brienne, at the head of 100,000 men. He made a descent upon Egypt; and, though he at first met with success, he was obliged finally to abandon it and return. A.C. 1221.

14. The sixth Crusade was commenced by the noble and virtuous Louis IX., of France, justly styled St. Louis, in the year A.C. 1244. He began by invading Egypt, and succeeded in taking Damietta. But during the advance of the army on Cairo, the capital of Egypt, the crusaders were completely defeated by the Mahometans at Massoura, and Louis himself was shortly after taken prisoner. A.C. 1250. Having been ransomed he returned to France.

15. About thirteen years afterwards Louis was induced to undertake a second Crusade, which was directed against the Moors in Africa, and was the seventh and last of those great enterprises. Having embarked with 60,000 chosen troops, Louis laid siege to Tunis; but before anything of importance could be done, a pestilence broke out in the army, which proved fatal to the king and one-half of his followers. A.C. 1272.

16. The Crusades owed their origin to the noblest

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and most generous impulses of the heart, and were urged by motives of honour, humanity, and religion; and though it has been common for very many modern writers to view them with scorn, they will, when the circumstances and the times which produced them are properly considered, stand the severest test of impartial investigation, and be ranked among the noble monuments of the piety, heroism, and devotion to the great interest of Christian civilization, which characterized the movements of that iron age of Christian faith.

17. It is true that much blood was shed—nearly 2,000,000 of the crusaders having perished. But when this loss, in the space of nearly 200 years, is compared with the great consumption of human life in modern times, which has been carried on for the mere purposes of criminal ambition, it sinks into insignificance. The wars of Napoleon, which lasted only for twenty years, occasioned the death of no fewer than 8,000,000 of men.

18. When the beneficial effects of the Crusades are considered, the loss, great as it was, cannot be regretted, or urged as a ground of reproach. The Crusades saved European civilization from imminent peril, by checking the fierce progress of the eastern barbarians; they healed many of the petty animosities which had existed among neighbouring princes, and had long kept Christendom in a state of turbulent and destructive warfare; relieved the feudal system from many of its oppressive features; rendered travelling more easy and secure; gave an impetus to the art of navigation, and facilities to commerce; awakened a spirit of enterprise; and, by the necessary communications with Greece and Syria which they promoted, were one of the most powerful helps towards the complete revival of literature, art, and science.

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### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IV.

1. What were the Crusades?
2. What is said of the motives which produced them? State some of the circumstances which caused them.
3. What happened in the midst of these circumstances? What was the origin of the first Crusade? What originated the word Crusade?
4. What happened in the year 1096? Who held the most prominent place in the first Crusade?
5. Who led the first division, and what became of it?
6. What were the actions of the second division?
7. What produced the second Crusade, and by whom was it preached? By whom was it led, and what was its fate?
8. What produced the third Crusade? Who were the leaders of the third Crusade?
9. What is said of Frederick and Philip Augustus?
10. What is said of Richard and his army? What happened him on his return?
11. What produced the fourth Crusade, and who was its leader? What deterred the Crusaders from going to the Holy Land?
12. Whither did they go, and what occurred?
13. What was undertaken shortly after? Who led the fifth Crusade, and what was its fate?
14. Who commenced the sixth Crusade, and when? How did Louis begin? How did the expedition terminate?
15. What happened about thirteen years after? What was the result of this Crusade?
16. What is said of the Crusades?
17. What is said of the loss of life during the Crusades?
18. What is said of the beneficial effects of the Crusades? What were some of those beneficial effects?



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## CHAPTER V.

### CHIVALRY.

1. ONE of the most remarkable features in the society of the middle ages, was the institution of chivalry. Various opinions have been advanced by modern writers as to its origin. Some contend that it owed its establishment to the Goths; others, that it took its rise from the Crusades; and several, that it was a consequence of the feudal system. But without denying that each and all of these may have entered into the causes which gave rise to some of the features of the institution, it may be safely asserted, that the great power which gave it form and embodiment, and controlled its spirit, was the influence of Christianity exercised over that rude and turbulent age, for the purpose of checking, counteracting, and subduing the outrages and miseries attendant upon an infant state of civilization.

2. Chivalry may be described as an institution which blended the fiery and warlike spirit of the age with the ennobling virtues of charity, justice, honour, hospitality, courtesy, and valour.

3. Its distinguishing characteristics were, a romantic spirit of adventure; a love of arms, and the rewards of valour; an eagerness to succour the distressed and redress wrongs; high sentiments of honour; veneration for religion; and a devoted and respectful attachment for the female sex. Its objects were to check the insolence of overgrown oppressors; to succour the afflicted; to liberate the helpless from captivity; to protect or to avenge women, orphans, or clergymen, who could not bear arms in their own defence; to redress wrongs of all kinds, and to remove grievances.

4. Chivalry pervaded almost every part of Europe; but France, Spain, and Germany were the countries

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in which it first arrived at perfection. During the Crusades the institution was at its height on the Continent; but it did not reach maturity in England until the reign of Edward III., in the fourteenth century.

5. Knighthood was the highest degree of chivalry, and every person of noble birth aspired to the honour. Long previous discipline, however, was necessary to attain it; and it was conferred amidst devout and imposing solemnities. It was deemed a distinction superior to royalty, and monarchs were found to receive it from the hands of private gentlemen.

6. Those who were destined for this high honour were placed for education, at an early age, in the castle of some knight. There, surrounded by virtuous ladies and valiant knights, the youth, who, from the age of seven to fourteen, was styled a page or valet, received his first impressions of virtue and love, honour and valour. After passing the degree of page, the youth, at the age of fourteen, received the degree of esquire, and was then authorized to bear arms. On arriving at the age of twenty-one the esquire underwent an examination, and, if deemed worthy, was admitted to the full honours of knighthood. The candidate for this last degree was required to prepare himself by ablutions, by strict fasting, by passing the previous night in prayer, and by making a solemn confession of his sins; and, as a type of the purity of life and manners to which he dedicated himself, he was clothed in white.

7. The most important part of the equipments of a knight was his horse; his most distinguishing weapon, his lance. His other offensive weapons consisted of a sword, dagger, battle-axe, and mace. His helmet, cuirass, coat of mail, shield, etc., constituted his defensive armour.

8. The laws of chivalry made it the duty of the knight to protect the chastity and honour of ladies; to relieve faithful vassals from the oppression of petty lords; and to observe on all occasions, in a special

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manner, the virtues of hospitality, humanity, and courtesy. Great excellence and skill in all the martial sports and exercises of the age; the virtues of piety, chastity, modesty, courtesy, loyalty, liberality, sobriety, and, above all, an inviolable attachment to truth, and an invincible courage, were the endowments and virtues necessary to form an accomplished knight.

9. The favourite amusements and exercises of the knights were jousts, tilts, and tournaments, the most splendid of which were celebrated at royal marriages and coronations, and after great victories. They were attended by distinguished knights, barons, princes, and ladies of the highest rank; and surpassed in gorgeous display, and exciting circumstances, every scenic performance of modern times.

10. Chivalry also embraced various orders or associations of knights, united for specific purposes, mostly of a benevolent or half-religious character. These orders figure prominently in history, and some remains of them exist to this time. The order of the Knights Hospitallers—afterwards called the Knights of Malta—was founded in the eleventh century, at Jerusalem. The order of the Knights Templars was founded also at Jerusalem, in A.C. 1184, and suppressed in A.C. 1312. The Teutonic order was established about A.C. 1390.

11. The influence of chivalry upon society was most important. It gave a noble direction to the military spirit of the age, which else would have spent itself in perpetual war, rapine, and anarchy. "War was carried on with less ferocity, when humanity came to be deemed the ornament of knighthood, no less than courage. More gentle and polished manners were introduced, when courtesy was recommended as the most amiable of knightly virtues. Violence and oppression decreased, when it was reckoned meritorious to check and to punish them." Treachery and hypocrisy became detestable, when loyalty and truth became the distinguishing characteristics of the gentleman; and all the low and grovelling passions of the heart

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were checked, when its aspirations were directed towards the cultivation of the ennobling sentiments that glorified the spirit of chivalry.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER V.

1. What was one of the most remarkable features in the society of the middle ages, and what is said of its origin?
2. How may chivalry be described?
3. What were its distinguishing characteristics and its objects?
4. Where did chivalry prevail?
5. What was the highest degree in chivalry? What is said of it?
6. Explain the manner in which knighthood was reached? How did the candidate prepare himself?
7. What were the equipments, offensive and defensive, of the knight?
8. What were the duties of a knight, and his virtues and endowments?
9. What were the favourite amusements of the knight? How were they attended?
10. What did chivalry also embrace?
11. What is said of the influence of chivalry upon society?

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## CHAPTER VI.

### RISE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, AND EXTINCTION OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.

*From* A.C. 1300 *to* A.C. 1453.

1. THE Crusades, which for nearly two centuries precipitated the chivalry of western Europe upon the shores of Asia, retarded, but did not prevent, the encroachments of the Turks upon the European dominions of the Eastern Empire. After the final and unsuccessful termination of those wonderful expedi-

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tions, the Turks gradually regained their strength and possessions, and concentrated a power which was destined to obliterate the last vestige of the imperial sway of the Romans.

2. Fresh hordes of Turks inundated the fairest portions of Asia Minor, and swelled the forces of those already in possession. Among the seven independent chieftains, or emirs, who conducted the progress of this fierce race, Othman (from whom the Turks derived the name of Ottomans) was far the most powerful. He pursued a victorious career of twenty-seven years, and finally, after the conquest of most of Syria and Asia Minor, concentrated the sole command in his own person. A.C. 1300 to 1327.

3. He was succeeded by his son Orcan, under whom the Turks, after the reduction of Prusium, Nicomedia, and Nice, crossed the Straits of Constantinople, and carried their arms into Europe. When Orcan died, in the year 1360, many important places in Thrace, and the city of Adrianople, had fallen into their hands.

4. Having thus obtained a foothold, they continued for a series of years—which presented an uninterrupted scene of warfare—to add to their conquests, until, under the reign of Bajazet I., surnamed Ilderim, or Lightning, the Turkish encroachments had so reduced the Eastern Empire, that its limits scarcely extended beyond the suburbs of the city of Constantinople. A.C. 1396.

5. Everything appeared, at this period, to announce the downfall of Constantinople itself. But this catastrophe was delayed by the appearance from the east of a far more formidable conqueror than Bajazet, who was now forced to defend himself. The renowned and terrible Timurbek, better known as Tamerlane, a prince of the Usbeck Tartars, after having conquered India, Persia, and a portion of Syria, now poured his barbarous warriors upon the plains of Asia Minor.

6. Bajazet hastened to oppose this formidable warrior with a large army. A great battle was fought

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near Ancyra, in Phrygia, which, after three days' incessant slaughter, resulted in the triumph of Tamerlane. A.C. 1402. Bajazet, having been taken prisoner, was confined by the conqueror in an iron cage, where, one or two years after, he died.

7. Tamerlane soon after returned to his own dominions, and the Turks, recovering from their defeat in a short time re-appeared in the field of conquest as powerful as ever. The pacific reign of Mahomet I., who died in 1421, was followed by that of Amuret II., who, in the decisive battle of Varna, in 1444, deprived the city of Constantinople of almost its last resource; and finally, the sceptre passing into the hands of Mahomet II., determined the fate of the Eastern Empire.

8. It was in vain that the Emperor, Constantine Paleologus, exercised all his prudence and intrepidity against the bold and ambitious Sultan of the Turks. The last day of the Eastern Empire of the Romans had arrived. The city of Constantinople fell, after a most bloody resistance, into the hands of the Turks, and was given up to rapine and plunder. A.C. 1453.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VI.

1. What happened in the East after the Crusades?
2. What is said of the Turks in Asia Minor? Who was their most powerful chieftain, and what is said of him?
3. Who succeeded him? What is said of the Turks under Orcan?
4. What is said of the years succeeding Orcan?
5. What appeared to be inevitable at this period? What delayed the event? What is said of Tamerlane?
6. How did Bajazet act, and what was the result? What became of Bajazet?
7. What became of Tamerlane, and what was the subsequent course of the Turks?
8. What was the fate of Constantinople and the Eastern Empire?

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## CHAPTER VII.

### ILLUSTRIOUS MEN OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

1. DURING the greater portion of the middle ages, literature and the knowledge of the sciences were confined principally to the clergy; and amidst the general, and almost constant, state of turbulence and warfare which the unsettled elements of society produced at that eventful period, learning sought, in the sacred seclusion of the monasteries or convents, a secure and cherished home. To them, under the careful guardianship of the monks, whose noble efforts in the cause of instruction, and whose unheard-of labours in the transcription of books, have given them a title to the gratitude and admiration of all succeeding time, we are indebted for all the monuments we possess of ancient literature and science.

2. One accustomed to read of this period as one of unmitigated darkness and degrading ignorance, will be astonished to discover the brilliant catalogue of distinguished men who illustrated its annals by their efforts in the progress of civilization; and we conclude this period of our "Outlines" with a brief notice of a few of the most prominent.

3. Beginning with the last portion of the fifth century after Christ, when the middle ages commence, we find Simplicius distinguished as a philosopher, and St. Sidonius for his eminent learning.

4. In the sixth century flourished the renowned warriors, Belisarius and Narses; and its annals are illustrated by the writings of St. Cæsarius, St. Fulgentius, Boetius, and of the distinguished historians, Procopius, Gildas, and St. Gregory of Tours.

5. In the seventh century lived the warriors, Phillipicus and Amri; the distinguished statesmen, Leger and Ebrion; Isidorus of Seville, and Marculf, illustrious for their learning; St. Gregory the Great,

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Pope of Rome; and St. Augustine, the first Archbishop of Canterbury; the poet, St. Fortunatus; and Callinicus, the chemist.

6. In the eighth century flourished the distinguished Pepin D'Heristel and Charles Martel, illustrious as statesmen and warriors; the noble doctor and historian, known as the Venerable Bede; St. Zachary, Pope of Rome; St. Boniface, Apostle of Germany; and St. John Damascene, doctor of the Church.

7. The ninth century was illustrated by the brilliant careers of Charlemagne of France, and Alfred the Great of England; by the writings of the historians Paul of Aquileir, and Eginhard, and by the learning and erudition of Alcuin, John Scott, Lupus, Abbot of Ferriers; George Syncella, and Anastius the librarian.

8. In the tenth century flourished the distinguished warriors, Bardas, and Geoffrey, Count of Anjou; the historians Frovard, Eutychius, and Luitprandus; and St. Bruno of Cologne, Leo the Philosopher, and Eudes of Aluni, illustrious for their eminent learning.

9. In the eleventh century lived the historians, Leo the Grammarian, Herman the Short, Glabar and Adam of Bremen, and Abbo; Pope Sylvester II., Fulbert of Chartres, St. Peter Damian, Pope St. Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), and Lanfranc, all illustrious for their great learning. The leading warriors and statesmen of this period have already been mentioned as participators in the first Crusade, which took place towards the end of this century.

10. In the twelfth century flourished Abbot Segur, and Thibault, Count of Blois, eminent as statesmen; Hugh of Flavini, Sidgebert, Nestor, William of Malmesbury, Otho of Freysing, William of Tyre, and Peter of Blois, distinguished as historians; and Anselm of Canterbury, Yyvo of Chartres, William of Champeaux, Hugh of St. Victor, Abelard, Peter the Venerable, Peter Lombard, and John of Salisbury, eminent for their learning.

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11. The thirteenth century witnessed the military renown of the warriors, Chatillon, Couci, and Matthew of Montmorency; the writings of the historians, Roger Howden, Peter Des Vaux, Matthew Paris, Ville Hardouin, Inglebert, and Thomas Wick; the profound learning of Roger Bacon, Abbot Joachim, the great St. Thomas Aquinas, Richard Middleton, and Alain of Lisle; and the poetry of Thibault of Champagne, William of Lorris, and John of Meung.

12. The fourteenth century was rendered illustrious by the patriotic deeds of William Tell, the liberator of Switzerland; and of William Wallace and Robert Bruce, of Scotland; by the military achievements of the Black Prince, Du Guesclin, Cliscon, and John de Montfort; by the historical writings of Joinville, John Cantacuzenus, Matthew of Westminster, and Sir John Froissart; by the learning of William Oakham and Buridan; and by the poetry of Dante, Petrarch, and Chaucer.

13. The fifteenth century, during which the middle ages close, witnessed the military achievements of D'Armagnac, Talbot, Scanderberg, and Warwick; the learning of Alain Chartier, the piety of Thomas à Kempis, the poetry of Gower and Chatelaine, and the enterprise of Faust and Schaeffer, the first printers, and of Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of America.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VII.

1. What is said of literature and science during the middle ages? For what are we indebted to the monasteries and the monks?
2. What will be discovered with astonishment by certain persons?
3. What distinguished men lived towards the close of the fifth century?
4. What distinguished persons flourished in the sixth century?
5. What distinguished persons flourished in the seventh century?

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6. What distinguished persons flourished in the eighth century?
7. In the ninth century?
8. In the tenth century?
9. In the eleventh century?
10. What distinguished persons flourished in the twelfth century?
11. In the thirteenth century?
12. In the fourteenth century?
13. What distinguished persons flourished in the fifteenth century?

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PART THIRD.

# MODERN HISTORY.—FRANCE.

## CHAPTER I.

1. ACCORDING to the division of history which we have adopted, modern history reaches from the extinction of the Eastern Empire, in the year 1453, down to the present time.

2. Immediately after the downfall of the Eastern Empire, in 1453, the progress of improvement, in manners, literature, science, and art, which had been long making a certain and gradual advancement, received a most wonderful acceleration. The Crusades had awakened a spirit of enterprise; chivalry had refined the manners and the morals of men; commerce had commenced to stimulate the energies and form the tastes of Europe, and had poured its wealth and magnificence into the Italian cities of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa; and the association of the Hanse towns, embracing most of the commercial cities of Europe, had opened a brilliant era in European progress.

3. In the midst of these favourable auspices, the mariner's compass, gunpowder, and the art of printing were invented, followed by the discovery of America, and of a maritime passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope—events which gave renewed life and vitality to the restless spirit of the age, and opened an interminable field to the growing and ardent struggles of enterprise.

4. The munificent and liberal patronage bestowed

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at Rome, and throughout Europe, at this period, upon science, literature, and art, contributed also to quicken in every direction the energies of the mind, and opened up new sources of ambitious exertion.

5. Thus commenced the present progressive movement, which, although retarded at several periods since by religious divisions and destructive wars, has never been stayed in its onward march. The full and steady light of refinement and civilization is now beaming with a constantly increasing lustre upon almost every quarter of the globe.

6. The most powerful states of Europe at the present time are France, England, Russia, Prussia, or North Germany; and Austria, or South Germany. The kingdoms of lesser power are Turkey, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Sweden and Norway, Belgium, the Netherlands, or Holland, and Denmark. It is our intention to treat of all these, and also to glance at the history of Scotland, Ireland, and Poland, before touching the history of America and Australia.

7. Most of the modern kingdoms of Europe, however, date their early history and commencement during the middle ages, the most prominent features only of which period have already been given. It will be necessary, therefore, in order to give a complete outline, to take up the history of those kingdoms at a period much earlier than that which marks the commencement of modern history.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER I.

1. When does modern history commence?
2. What is said of the progress of improvement after the fall of the Eastern Empire? What is said of it up to that period?
3. What happened in the midst of this state of things?
4. What further exerted a beneficial influence at this period?
5. What is said of the progressive movement thus commenced?

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6. What are the most powerful kingdoms of Europe? What are those of lesser power?
7. What is said of most of the modern kingdoms of Europe? What therefore will be necessary?

## CHAPTER II.

### FRANCE—SECTION I.

*Its Early History—Merovingian Kings—Carlovingian Kings—From* A.C. 234 *to* A.C. 987.

1. FRANCE anciently bore the name of Gaul, which in addition to its modern dimensions, comprised the Netherlands and the western parts of Germany. It derived its modern name of France from a mixed multitude of various tribes, inhabiting the country between the Rhine and the Weser, who, when Germany was invaded by the Romans, united in defence of their common country, and styled themselves Franks, or Free-men.

2. The Franks, between the year A.C. 234, when they made their first irruption into Gaul, and the year A.C. 420, were, with but occasional interruption, in fierce opposition to the power of the Roman emperors. At the last-mentioned period, however, they obtained, under their leader, Pharamond, a permanent footing in the province.

3. Pharamond was succeeded in A.C. 427, by his putative son Clodion, who, after a reign of twenty-one years, left the throne to Merovaeus, from whom the first race of the French kings takes the name of Merovingian.

4. Childeric I., who succeeded his father, Merovaeus, after a turbulent reign, left the kingdom to Clovis, who is properly considered the founder of the French monarchy. A.C. 481.

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5. Clovis having married Clotilda, a Christian princess, was converted, by her pious endeavours, to Christianity, an event which was followed by the conversion of his subjects. He made Paris the seat of his government, and published the Salique law, excluding females from succession to the throne.

6. From the death of Clovis, in 511 A.C., to the year 681 A.C., there were twelve kings of the Merovingian line, whose reigns were marked with much discord and bloodshed. At the latter period, however, during the reign of Thierry, Pepin d'Heristel, the Mayor of the Palace, or chief officer in the kingdom, acquired absolute authority, which he retained for many years—the king being so merely in name.

7. Charles Martel succeeded his father, Pepin, in supreme authority. He is distinguished for having stopped the tide of Saracen conquest by signally defeating the Mahometans, who had overrun Spain and passed the Pyrennees, in the celebrated battle between Tours and Poictiers. A.C. 732.

8. Charles Martel was succeeded in power by his son Pepin le Bref, or the Short, Childeric III. being the nominal king. Pepin, being wily and ambitious, soon succeeded in having the crown placed on his own head, to the exclusion of Childeric and his sons, and thus put an end to the Merovingian race of kings. A.C. 752.

9. Pepin, who was the founder of the second, or Carlovingian race of kings (so called from Charles Martel, the father of Pepin), was succeeded by his sons, Charles and Carloman. The latter soon after dying, the undivided sovereignty devolved on Charles, who is known in history as the celebrated Charlemagne, or Charles the Great. A.C. 771.

10. Charlemagne was by far the greatest monarch of his age, and pursued a splendid career of victory, which, in the course of thirty years, extended his dominion over France, the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, a large portion of Italy, and a part of

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Spain. So extentive were his conquests that he was solemnly crowned Emperor of the West by Pope Leo III., at Rome. A.C. 800.

11. After the death of Charlemagne, the empire was divided into three monarchies—France, Germany, and Italy. The history of his successors presents a contrast to the brilliant career of Chalemagne—presenting nothing but a series of catastrophes, until the supreme power was finally obtained by Hugh the Great, the most powerful nobleman of France, in the reigns of Louis IV. and Lothaire.

12. Hugh the Great was succeeded in power by his son, Hugh Capet, during the reign of Louis V. On the death of that monarch, Hugh Capet usurped the throne, and terminated the Carlovingian dynasty. He was the founder of the third, or Capetian race of French kings. A.C. 987.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION I.

1. What is said of France anciently? What is the origin of its modern name?
2. What is said of the Franks? When did they obtain a permanent footing in Gaul?
3. Who succeeded Pharamond?
4. Who succeeded Merovaeus? Who is properly considered the founder of the French monarchy?
5. What is said of Clovis?
6. What is said of the period immediately succeeding Clovis? What happened in the year 688 A.C.?
7. Who succeeded Pepin? For what is Charles Martel distinguished?
8. Who succeeded Charles Martel? What is said of Pepin le Bref?
9. Of what race was Pepin the founder? Who were his immediate successors?
10. What is said of Charlemagne, and the extent of his empire?
11. What happened after the death of Charlemagne? What is said of his successors?
12. Who succeeded Hugh the Great? What happened on the death of Louis V.?

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## SECTION II.

### *Capetian Kings, from Hugh Capet to Philip VI. of Valois. From* A.C. 987 *to* 1328.

1. HUGH CAPET, the head of the Capetian line, was an able and politic sovereign, during whose reign, which lasted nine years, the boundaries of the kingdom were extended, and several important regulations introduced.

2. He was succeeded by his son Robert, who, after a comparatively tranquil reign of thirty-five years, was succeeded by his son Henry I. A.C. 1031.

3. Henry I. was succeeded, after a reign of twenty-one years, by his son Philip I., during whose reign the first Crusade was preached by Peter the Hermit.

4. Louis VI., son of Philip I., ascended the throne in the year 1108, and was distinguished as an accomplished sovereign. His reign was singnalized by a war with Henry I. of England, in which the latter was aided by Henry V., Emperor of Germany.

5. He was succeeded by his son Louis VII., in 1137, who, as we have seen, led the second Crusade. Louis having divorced his wife, Eleanor, heiress of Guienne, she shortly afterwards married Henry Plantagenet, who subsequently became Henry II. of England, the rich duchy of Guienne became added to the dominions of the English Crown in France.

6. Philip II., surnamed Augustus, succeeded to the throne in 1180. He was a most able and accomplished sovereign, though having many faults. His reign was signalized by the expulsion of the Jews from his dominions, and the confiscation of their property; the third Crusade, in which he united with Richard Cœur de Leon and Frederick Barbarossa; and a war with King John of England, who was aided by Otho IV. of Germany, in which war Philip Augustus was completely successful. After a splendid reign of forty-



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three years, he left the kingdom about twice as large as when he found it.

7. Philip Augustus was succeeded by his son, Louis VIII., surnamed the Lion, on account of his valour. He seized upon all the possessions of the English on the continent as far as the Garronne. His reign was also signalized by an expedition against the Albigenses, whose movements had convulsed the south of France.

8. St. Louis IX. ascended the throne in 1226, at the age of twelve years. During his minority the government was conducted under the regency of his mother, a most accomplished princess. St. Louis was eminently distinguished for his benevolence, piety, and purity of life, and combined in his character all the noblest qualities that can adorn a monarch. As we have seen, he engaged in the sixth and seventh Crusades, during the progress of the last of which he died near Tunis.

9. Philip III., surnamed the Bold, succeeded his father in 1270, and continued the Crusade against the Saracens in Africa, until he compelled the King of Tunis to submit to terms favourable to the Christians.

10. He was succeeded, in 1285, by Philip IV., surnamed the Fair. During his reign a revolt in Flanders was subdued after a bloody struggle, and the celebrated order of Knights Templars was suppressed, in consequence of the corruptions and abuses which had for a long time disgraced the institution.

11. Philip IV. was succeeded by Louis X., who reigned only two years. His posthumous child, John I., died four days after being acknowledged king, and the brother of Philip IV., who was acting as regent, succeeded under the title of Philip V. His reign was marked by a persecution of the Jews.

12. Charles IV. succeeded Philip V., and after reign of six years, died without issue; and thus minated the Capetian race of kings. A.D. 1328.

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QUESTIONS ON SECTION II.

1. What is said of Hugh Capet?
2. Who succeeded him?
3. Who succeeded Henry I.? What happened in his reign?
4. Who succeeded Philip I.? What is said of him and his reign?
5. Who succeeded Louis VI.? What is said of Louis VII. and his wife Eleanor?
6. Who succeeded Louis VII.? What is said of Philip Augustus and his reign?
7. Who succeeded Philip Augustus? What is said of him and his reign?
8. Who succeeded Louis VIII.? What is said of St. Louis IX.?
9. Who succeeded St. Louis IX.?
10. Who succeeded Philip III.? What happened during his reign?
11. Who succeeded Philip IV.?
12. Who succeeded Philip V.? What was the effect of his dying without male issue?

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SECTION III.

*Branch of Valois, commencing with Philip VII., and ending with Charles VIII. From* A.C. 1328 *to* 1498.

1. John I., Philip V., and Charles IV., having left no male heirs, the throne devolved on Philip of Valois, the cousin of the late king, who assumed the title of Philip VI. The succession, however, was claimed by Edward III. of England, in right of his mother Isabella, the daughter of Philip IV.—a claim that produced those long and bloody contests between France and England which are so famous in the history of those countries.

2. During the reign of Philip VI. the English monarch, in prosecuting his claim to the crown of

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France, was signally successful in his military engagements. He forced his way as far as Paris, gained a great victory over Philip at Cressy, and subsequently besieged and took Calais. A.C. 1346.

3. Philip VI. was succeeded in 1350 by his son John II., a good but most unfortunate monarch. He was utterly defeated by the English, under the Black Prince, at Poictiers, in 1356, and carried a prisoner to London, where he died in 1364.

4. He was succeeded by his son Charles V., surnamed the wise, a prudent and sagacious sovereign. His reign was rendered illustrious by the achievements of the celebrated general de Guesclin. The French under that able commander recovered almost all the places conquered by the English.

5. Charles VI. succeeded the late king, his father, in 1380, at the age of twelve years, under the regency of his uncle, the Duke of Anjou. His unfortunate reign was distracted by civil wars, during which Henry V. of England invaded France, and gained the famous victory of Agincourt.

6. Charles VII. succeeded to the throne in 1422. His claim to the crown being disputed by Henry VI. of England, the war was renewed with great vigour, and Charles was reduced to the most desperate extremities. At this crisis, however, an obscure country-girl, twenty-seven years of age, Joan of Arc, otherwise called the maid of Orleans, turned the tide of victory. Claiming to be divinely commissioned, she placed herself at the head of the armies of France, and by her address and intrepidity, overthrew the power of the English. She was subsequently, however, taken by the latter, and burnt alive at Rouen. A.C. 1431.

7. Louis XI. succeeded Charles VII. in 1461. Though the author of several wise laws and regulations, his character was distinguished for cunning, dishonesty, and cruelty. His nobles, exasperated by his overbearing tyranny, revolted, and produced a civil war, called the war of the Public Good.

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8. Charles VIII. succeeded his father in 1483, at the age of thirteen, under the regency of his sister, Anne of Beaugeau. He was a mild, affable, and courteous monarch. During his reign he effected the conquest of Naples, which kingdom had been claimed by his father. He reigned fifteen years, and died without issue. A.C. 1498.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION III.

1. Who succeeded Charles IV.? By whom was the succession claimed, and what was the consequence?
2. What happened during the reign of Philip VI.?
3. Who succeeded Philip VI.? What happened during his reign?
4. Who succeeded John II.? What rendered his name illustrious?
5. Who succeeded Charles V.? What is said of his reign?
6. Who succeeded Charles VI.? What happened during his reign?
7. Who succeeded Charles VII.? What is said of Louis XI.?
8. Who succeeded Louis XI.? What is said of Charles VIII.?

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## SECTION IV.

### *Branch of Orleans, commencing with Louis XII.*, A.C. 1498, *and ending with Henry III.*, A.C. 1589.

1. CHARLES VIII., the last of the direct line of the house of Valois, having died without issue, the crown devolved upon the Duke of Orleans, the great-grandson of Charles V., who assumed the title of Louis XII. This monarch was a just and beneficent ruler, and, by relieving his subjects from many burthens under which they had laboured, obtained the title of "The Father of his People." In his military enterprises he was finally unsuccessful, though his armies were led by the celebrated Chevalier Bayard and Gaston de Foix.

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2. Louis XII. was succeeded, in 1515, by his nephew, Francis I., a most accomplished prince, a bold, ardent, and enterprising warrior, and a munificent patron of literature. On the death of Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, in 1519, Francis, and Charles, King of Spain, afterwards Charles V. of Germany, became rival claimants for the imperial throne of Germany. The ambition of Francis was foiled, and Charles was elevated to the coveted throne. This gave rise to a fierce war between the two monarchs, which lasted more than twenty years. It finally terminated in favour of Charles; and soon after peace was restored, Francis died. A.C. 1547.

3. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II., who, without possessing the talents of his father, resembled him in many respects. Thirteen years of his reign were spent in war with Charles V. of Germany, and Philip II. of Spain, which was ended by the treaty of Chateau Cambresis. During this reign, Calais, which had been in possession of the English ever since the reign of Philip VI., when it was taken by Edward III. of England, was recovered by the French.

4. Henry II. was succeeded, 1559, by his son, Francis II., who was the first husband of the unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots. He reigned but one year, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles IX., a boy ten years old, under the regency of his mother, Catherine de Medicis.

5. At this time the Protestant religion, which had been first promulgated in Germany during the reign of Charles V., had gained many adherents in France, and counted among its leaders the Prince of Conde and Admiral Colligny. Much hostility had been manifested towards the Protestants by the government, under the Guises, during the short reign of Francis II.; and the conspiracy of Amboise, which the Protestants had then formed against the king and the Catholic leaders, and which had been discovered and

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frustrated, caused that hostility to increase, and was the origin of severe measures.

6. Two years after the accession of Charles IX., the Protestants revolted against the government, and the horrors of civil war, aggravated by murders and assassinations on both sides, reigned throughout France. At length, after many contests and much bloodshed, the unnatural warfare was crowned by an awful and barbarous act of cruelty on the part of the government. This was the simultaneous massacre of a large number of the principal Protestants throughout France, on the night of St. Bartholomew's Day, August 23, 1572.

7. Charles IX. was succeeded, in 1574, by his weak brother, Henry III., during whose reign the celebrated League was formed by the Duke of Guise and the Catholic leaders, for the purpose of defending the state against the power of the Protestant party, which was led by the Prince of Conde and Henry, King of Navarre. After a distracted reign of fifteen years, Henry III. was assassinated by James Clements, a fanatic friar, and with him ended the Orleans branch of the house of Valois, A.C. 1589.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION IV.

1. Upon whom did the crown devolve on the death of Charles VIII.? What is said of Louis XII.?
2. Who succeeded Louis XII.? What happened on the death of Maximilian of Germany?
3. Who succeeded Francis I.? What happened during his reign?
4. Who succeeded Henry II.? Who succeeded Francis II.?
5. What is said of the Protestant religion at this time?
6. What happened two years after the accession of Charles IX.? What was the result?
7. Who succeeded Charles IX.? What happened during this reign? What was its termination?

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## SECTION V.

### *House of Bourbon, from the Accession of Henry IV.*, A.C. 1589, *to that of Louis XVI.*, A.C. 1774.

1. THE house of Valois having become extinct on the death of Henry III., the crown passed to the Bourbon branch of the Capetian line, deriving its descent from St. Louis IX., and being the next entitled, in the person of Henry III., King of Navarre, who ascended the throne of France with the title of Henry IV., afterwards surnamed the Great.

2. The accession of Henry IV., who had been reared a Protestant, was at first opposed by the League, which had been formed during the previous reign, and was now led by the Duke of Mayence; but Henry, having overthrown that party in the decisive battle of Ivri, and having subsequently renounced Protestantism and become a Catholic, effectually silenced all opposition. By the celebrated Edict of Nantes, securing to his Protestant subjects many valuable rights and privileges; by his many truly royal qualities, and the benefits and blessings which his wise and prudent administration conferred on his long-afflicted country, he won the love and gratitude of all classes of his subjects. He fell, however, beneath the hand of an assassin named Ravaillac, a raving fanatic. A.C. 1610.

3. Henry IV. was succeeded by his son, Louis XIII., at the age of nine years, under the regency of his mother, Mary de Medicis. During the regency the kingdom relapsed into the most fatal disorders; but Louis, after reaching his majority, entrusted the management of affairs to the celebrated Cardinal Richelieu, his prime minister, who, by his powerful genius and consummate statesmanship, raised the kingdom to a higher pitch of prosperity than it had ever before attained, and laid the foundation of the glory of the following reign.

4. Louis XIV. succeeded his father, the late king,

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in 1643, in the fifth year of his age, under the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria. During his minority Cardinal Mazarin was prime minister; but on the death of that statesman, in 1661, Louis took personal charge of the government, and entered upon a splendid career, which rendered his reign the most brilliant in the history of France. His armies, commanded by the celebrated Turenne and Conde, and the finances of his kingdom regulated by the abilities of Colbert, enabled him to extend his power by foreign conquest, and build up and increase the internal splendour of his kingdom. His reign is styled the Augustan age of France, and is distinguished for the many illustrious men in every department of literature, art, and science, who flourished at the period.

5. The Edict of Nantes, which had been issued by Henry IV. in favour of his Protestant subjects, was revoked by Louis XIV. in 1685, on account of the many disturbances which, under it, the Protestants had excited, and the restless and intriguing spirit they had constantly manifested. This has been, by many, considered an impolitic measure, inasmuch as France lost, by the emigration of the Protestants in consequence, a large, industrious, and useful population. But if it was—as the statesmen of the period certainly viewed it—a measure required for the security and tranquillity of the kingdom—disadvantages of such a nature should not weigh against it, no matter how much we may regret the circumstances which rendered so stern a policy necessary.

6. Louis XIV. reigned seventy-two years, and died in the 78th year of his age, in the year 1715. His reign was the longest, and, as we have said, the most brilliant in the history of France.

7. He was succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV., in the sixth year of his age, under the regency of the Duke of Orleans. During this regency many thousands of persons were ruined by the bank established by Law, a Scottish adventurer, who formed a

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plan, called the Mississippi Scheme, for paying off the national debt.

8. On attaining his majority, Louis XV. chose for his prime minister the excellent Cardinal Fleury, who, for twenty years, by his wise and prudent counsels, maintained the peace of France and the rest of Europe. After the death of that virtuous minister, France became involved in the war of the Austrian succession, which broke out on the death of the Emperor Charles VI. The rival claimants to the vacant throne were Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary, and daughter of the late emperor, and Charles, Elector of Bavaria; the former supported by England, and the latter by France and Prussia. The contest, after a struggle of seven years, resulted in favour of Maria Theresa, and peace was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. A.C. 1748.

9. Seven years after this, France and England became engaged in a war on account of the boundaries of their colonies in America. It was terminated by a treaty, at Paris, in 1763, by which France ceded her most valuable North American possessions to England.

10. Louis XV. died in 1774, having ruled fifty-nine years. A great portion of his reign was marked by tyrannical exactions, odious measures, and destructive prodigality, which paved the way to the terrible convulsions that, during the reign of his unfortunate successor, shattered the monarchy into dust, and shook every throne in Europe to its basis.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION V.

1. What happened on the death of Henry III.?
2. What opposition was made to Henry IV.? How was this opposition silenced? What is said of Henry IV., and what was his fate?
3. Who succeeded Henry IV.? What happened during the regency, and after Louis attained his majority?

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4. Who succeeded Louis XIII.? Who was his prime minister? What is said of Louis XIV. and his reign after the death of Mazarin?
5. What edict was revoked by Louis XIV., and why? How has this measure been considered? How is this objection answered?
6. How long did Louis XIV. reign, and what is said of his reign?
7. By whom was he succeeded? What occurred during the regency?
8. Whom did Louis XV. chose as his minister? What happened after the death of Cardinal Fleury? Who were the claimants of the Austrian throne? What was the result of the war?
9. What happened seven years after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle? How did this war terminate?
10. When did Louis XV. die, and what is said of his reign?

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## SECTION VI.

### *From the Accession of Louis XVI.*, A.C. 1774, *to* A.C. 1799.—*The Revolution.*

1. Louis XVI. succeeded his grandfather, the late king, in 1774, at the age of twenty years. Pure and upright in his intentions; virtuous, moral, and benevolent in his character; and desirous of promoting the welfare and happiness of his subjects, this most unfortunate monarch succeeded to a position beset on every side with difficulties and dangers of the most trying and appalling character. These—growing out of the tyranny, abuses, and prodigality which marked the career of his predecessor—needed the control of a firmer hand, a harder heart, and a more despotic disposition, than Louis XVI. possessed.

2. The nation immensely in debt, the people goaded to desperation by unequal taxation, the resources of the kingdom utterly exhausted, the state of the finances presenting a frightful deficiency, which could

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be supplied only by still more grinding exactions from the already impoverished subjects, added to the spread of irreligion and immorality infusing their pernicious influence through every department of society, presented a combination of evils portentous of the terrible tornado which was about to sweep over the devoted monarchy.

3. Perceiving the distressing and threatening aspect of public affairs, Louis XVI. commenced his reign by kingly acts of munificence and measures calculated to conciliate the popular desires. He removed from office the most obnoxious persons; appointed in their place able and popular ministers, and re-established the parliaments which had been suppressed in the previous reign. The affairs of the kingdom, however, were desperate. Turgot, at the head of the finance, in attempting his reforms, became obnoxious to the privileged classes, and was forced to retire. The celebrated Necker succeeded him and shared the same fate; and the department passed into the hands of Calonne, who, abandoning the economy of his predecessors, sought the safety of the state in a show of prodigality.

4. All this, however, did not allay the irritable state of public feeling, and the restless and feverish desire for a change. In the midst of this, the American Revolution broke out, and the French government, at the solicitation of the struggling colonies, aided them in their effort to throw off the British yoke. On the return of peace, in 1783, the embarrassments of the kingdom were, as a natural consequence, greatly increased, and the passions and feelings of the people roused by the spirit of liberty and independence which had characterized the glorious movements in America.

5. At length, after various attempts to extricate the kingdom from its embarrassments, the States General, a body consisting of deputies from the three orders, the nobility, clergy, and common people, were con-

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voked. The ratio of representation to this great assembly was so fixed, that the revolutionary party obtained in it a decided ascendency. The natural result soon followed. The revolutionists changed the title of the body to that of the National Assembly, and, in carrying out their first acts, they, in effect, wrested from the king the greater part of his authority, and deprived the nobility of their privileges.

6. Great disorders immediately followed. Paris became the scene of frightful insurrections, during which the state prison, called the Bastile, was razed to the ground, and the lanes, alleys, cellars, and filthy purlieus of the crowded city poured forth the disgusting forms of the vilest and most abandoned wretches of both sexes, whose crimes and horrid excesses cannot be contemplated without a shudder.

7. The National Assembly, after effecting changes of the most radical character, undertook to form a constitution, and was thence called the Constituent Assembly. At this time the king attempted to fly from the kingdom, but was arrested. A constitution was shortly after determined on, which, being accepted by the king, the Constituent Assembly adjourned, September 30, 1791.

8. The Revolution had only commenced. The Legislative Assembly next met, and, its deliberations influenced and swayed by the fierce revolutionary spirit of the celebrated Jacobin Club, the most violent and proscriptive measures were adopted.

9. On the 21st of September, 1792, a new body, styled the National Convention, met, and commenced its action by abolishing the regal government, and declaring France a Republic. This assembly, swayed by monsters in the shape of men—Marat, Danton, Robespierre, and their confederates—thirsted for the blood of their innocent king. He was accordingly arraigned, and condemned by that infamous tribunal to suffer death by the guillotine. He was executed January 21, 1793. His queen, the celebrated Marie

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Antoinette, and his virtuous and noble sister, the Princess Elizabeth—the one in October, 1793, and the other in May, 1794—shared the same cruel fate. The guillotine in Paris and throughout France—between 1792 and 1794—was constantly reeking with the best and noblest blood of France; and so numerous were the arrests, and so horrid the executions and massacres, that this period is known in history as "the Reign of Terror." Most of the demons who acted as leaders of the revolutionary government at this awful time, in their turn, a very short time afterwards, being condemned by rival partisans, met death on the guillotine, and paid a just penalty for their terrible crimes.

10. During the "Reign of Terror" the irreligion and impiety which the writings of the French infidels had infused throughout France became awfully apparent. Religion was formally abolished by the government; a vast number of the clergy were massacred; Sunday, and everything pertaining to the sacred character of Christianity, incurred the hate of the revolutionists, and were obliterated; and the abominable worship of the Goddess Reason was substituted for the sublime morality and pure dogmas of the religion of Christ.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION VI.

1. What is said of Louis XVI. and the difficulties he had to encounter?
2. What was the state of France at this period?
3. How did Louis XVI. commence his reign? What is said of Turgot, Necker, and Calonne?
4. What was the effect of these measures? What event happened at this time? What was the effect of the American Revolution?
5. What happened at length? What was done by the revolutionists in the States-General?
6. What immediately followed?
7. What did the National Assembly next attempt, and what occurred?
8. What was the title of the next assembly, and what is said of it?

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9. When did the National Convention meet, and what did it do? What was the fate of Louis XVI., his queen, and sister? What is said of this period?
10. What other enormities happened during the reign of terror?

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## SECTION VII.

### *France under Napoleon I.*

1. DURING the progress of the Revolution several constitutions were formed, but each, in turn, was set aside. At length, in 1799, one was formed, which placed the executive power in the hands of three consuls, of whom Napoleon Bonaparte—who had, at this time, acquired a distinguished reputation on account of his military talents—was elected the first; Cambaceres, the second; and Le Brun, the third.

2. Previous to this, however, the violent and intemperate course of the revolutionists had awakened the fears and enmity of the sovereigns of Europe, and caused them, at different periods, to combine their efforts for the purpose of opposing the terrible progress of the Revolution, and of reinstating the kingly authority in France. The first of the series of coalitions against the French was commenced by Austria and Prussia in 1792; and they were joined, after the death of the king, by Great Britain, Holland, Russia, and Spain. The chief command of the allies was held by the Duke of Brunswick, who, having invaded France, was completely overthrown; and the French, under Dumouriez, flushed with their success, carried their victorious arms beyond the Rhine, speedily reducing the Netherlands, Switzerland, and a part of Germany, and afterwards planted their standards on the plains of Italy. The command of the army having been given, in 1796, to Napoleon

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Bonaparte, then only twenty-seven years of age, the war soon terminated in the complete triumph of the French, by the treaty of Campo Formio, in 1797.

3. After this, Bonaparte invaded Egypt, defeated the Mamelukes at the battle of the Pyramids, and took possession of Cairo and all the Delta. He penetrated also into Syria; took the city of Jaffa, and gained the battle of Mount Thabor; but was repulsed in his attempt upon Acre. Previous to this the French fleet was completely destroyed by the English, under Nelson, in the bay of Aboukir, off the mouth of the Nile, in 1798. Bonaparte, soon after his return to Egypt, hastened back to France, where he was created First Consul, December 24, 1799.

4. The second coalition had already been formed; but, though the allies were commanded by accomplished generals, nothing could resist the activity, energy, and talents of Bonaparte. The Austrians, under the Archduke Charles, and the Russians, under Suwarrow, gained, at first, many important advantages; but the brilliant and decided victories of the French, under Bonaparte at Marengo, and under Moreau at Hohenlinden, led the way to the peace of Amiens in 1802.

5. During the peace which succeeded the treaty of Amiens, Bonaparte, who, as First Consul, exercised absolute sway over the Republic, procured the establishment of many important regulations. He published an admirable body of laws, called the Code Napoleon, being a digest of the civil law; restored the Catholic religion, which had been suppressed during the Revolution, and embellished Paris by the erection of splendid buildings and national monuments.

6. In the meantime he was gradually advancing towards the summit of his ambition. He first caused himself to be created Consul for life, with supreme power and subsequently, in 1804, was proclaimed

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Emperor of France, with the title of Napoleon I., and solemnly crowned by Pope Pius VII.

7. During the year previous to assuming the imperial sceptre, war broke out afresh between France and England; and, in 1805, the third coalition was formed by England, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. These were afterwards joined by Prussia. Again Napoleon was victorious. He annihilated the power of the Austrian army at Ulm, overthrew the combined forces of Russia and Austria in the memorable battle of Austerlitz; and, in fine, forced his enemies to humiliating terms in the treaty of Presburg. The glory of these splendid successes, however, was somewhat dimmed by the great naval victory gained by the English over the combined fleets of France and Spain, off Cape Trafalgar. In this great battle Lord Nelson, the English admiral, was slain.

8. Napoleon, soon after this, dissolved the German Empire, and formed, by the union of several states, the celebrated "Confederation of the Rhine." He elevated the Electors of Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and Saxony, to the rank of kings, and appointed his brother Joseph King of Naples, and his brother Louis King of Holland.

9. Napoleon had now attained so imposing and dangerous a power in Europe, that a fourth coalition was formed against him in 1806, by Russia, Prussia, Austria, Sweden, and England. The Prussians commenced hostilities; but before the allied powers could render them assistance, Napoleon, with rapid, prompt, and well-timed movements, overthrew them in the great battles of Jena and Auerstadt, and took possession of Berlin, the capital of Prussia.

10. Subsequently the French army penetrated into Poland, and defeated the Russians in the obstinate battle of Pultusk. The next year Napoleon fought with the Russians the battle of Eylau, in which neither party was victorious; defeated them in the battle of Friedland; and having taken possession of Dantzic



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and Konigsberg, pursued the retreating Russians to the Niemen, and there, on a raft at Tilsit, dictated terms of peace to the Russian emperor, June 25, 1807.

11. By the peace of Tilsit, the King of Prussia lost a large portion of his dominions, and was, in effect, rendered powerless. Alexander, the Russian emperor, agreed to concur in Napoleon's great design of excluding British commerce from the Continent; and the provinces conquered from Prussia were formed into a separate kingdom, named Westphalia, of which Jerome Bonaparte was made king.

12. Having thus subdued his enemies in the north, Napoleon, elated by his wonderful success, next directed his attention to Spain and Portugal. Terrified at the threatening measures of the French emperor, the royal family of the latter kingdom emigrated to Brazil in South America; and Charles IV., King of Spain, was compelled to resign his crown in favour of Joseph Bonaparte, brother of Napoleon. The throne of Naples, which had been previously occupied by Joseph, was, in consequence, granted to Murat, Napoleon's brother-in-law. A.C. 1808.

13. These high-handed and ambitious measures roused the fierce opposition of the Spanish people, and caused the celebrated Peninsular War, in which the Spaniards were assisted by the English. The contest raged from the year 1808 to 1813, during which period the allied forces of Spain and England, under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley—afterwards created Duke of Wellington—gained a series of splendid victories over the French, the most important of which were those of Talavera, Salamanca, and Vittoria.

14. During the Peninsular War, however, Napoleon's attention was divided, in consequence of a new war, which, in 1809, broke out between Austria and France. This war Napoleon conducted in person, and, with his usual fortune, was completely successful. At Abensberg, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon, he drove the Aus-

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trians before him, and entered Vienna, the Austrian capital. Soon after he fought the desperate battle of Aspern, or Essling, and entirely defeated the Austrians, under the Archduke Charles, at the bloody battle of Wagram. This war was, in a short time after these successes, concluded by the treaty of Vienna, by which the Austrian emperor lost large portions of his territory, and, among other humiliating terms, was compelled to promise his daughter, Maria Louisa, in marriage to his victorious foe. In order to effect this marriage, Napoleon afterwards procured a divorce from his wife, the accomplished and celebrated Empress Josephine.

15. During the campaign, which ended in the victory of Wagram, Napoleon authorized a barbarous act of tyranny and cruelty, which has left one of the foulest blots on his fame, and which in a remarkable manner became the turning point of his fortune, as from that act may be dated his precipitate downfall from the summit of power to a desolate and lingering captivity. This was the dethronement and imprisonment of the venerable Pope Pius VII., and the forcible annexation of the Patrimony of St. Peter and of the Eternal City to the French Empire—the Pope having refused to comply with the arbitrary and unjust demands of the imperious conqueror. This event took place July 6, 1809.

16. The distinguished historian, Alison, concludes his account of this infamous transaction with the following remarkable passage: "'What does the Pope mean,' said Napoleon to Eugene, in 1807, 'by the threat of excommunicating me? Does he think the world has gone back a thousand years? Does he suppose the arms will fall from the hands of my soldiers?' Within two years after these remarkable words were written, the Pope did excommunicate him in return for the confiscation of his whole dominions, and in less than four years more the arms did fall from the hands of his soldiers, and the hosts, apparently in-

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vincible, which he had collected, were dispersed and ruined by the blasts of winter. He extorted from the Pope at Fontainbleau, in 1813, by the terrors and exhaustion of a long captivity, a renunciation of the rights of the Church over the Roman States; and within a year after he himself was compelled, also at Fontainbleau, to sign the abdication of all his dominions! He consigned Cardinal Pacca and several other prelates, the courageous counsellors of the bull of excommunication, to a dreary imprisonment of four years amid the snows of the Alps; and he himself was shortly after doomed to a painful exile of six, on the rock of St. Helena! There is something," continues Alison, "in these marvellous coincidences beyond the operations of chance, and which even a Protestant historian feels himself bound to mark for the observation of future ages. The world had not gone back a thousand years, but that Being existed with whom a thousand years are as one day, and one day as a thousand years."

17. In the meantime the restless ambition of the French emperor did not flag. In 1812, whilst yet the Peninsular War was raging, he declared war against Russia, under the plea that, contrary to the provisions of the treaty of Tilsit, the latter power had favoured British commerce. Accordingly, at the head of an immense army, he invaded Russia, defeated the Russians at Smolensk, fought the bloody battle of Borodino, and advanced with his victorious legions towards Moscow, the ancient capital of the empire.

18. Here he intended to take up his winter quarters; but he was thwarted by the Russians, who, by a desperate and sublime act of devotion, at last rolled back the tide of French victory. They set fire to their noble city, reduced it to ashes, and left the French emperor with no other alternative than to retrace his steps with his dispirited and weary army through deserts of snow, amidst the intense severity of a northern winter, and harassed at every step by fierce

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bands of Russians, who, throughout that disastrous retreat, hung upon his rear and flanks. Of the 400,000 men who entered Russia with Napoleon, only about 30,000 returned.

19. Napoleon, in advance of his shattered and ruined forces, hastened, disguised, to Paris, and, determined to retrieve his fortunes, levied another vast army, but he was now opposed by a fifth coalition, composed of Russia, Prussia, Austria, Sweden, and England. Nothing daunted, he advanced against his foes with his usual rapidity, defeated them in the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen, repulsed them at Dresden, but was finally completely routed in the terrible battle of Leipsic. 1813 A.C.

20. After this overwhelming reverse, Napoleon again fled to Paris, and attempted, but in vain, to rouse the French people. He then rejoined his army, and in vain attempted to oppose the progress of the allies, who having penetrated after desperate struggles into the heart of France, at length entered Paris, May 31, 1814.

21. Napoleon was now solemnly deposed by the allies, and was allowed to retire to the island of Elba; the Bourbon dynasty was restored; the brother of the unfortunate Louis XVI. ascended the throne, with the title of Louis XVIII., and the Pope, after a captivity of five years, returned to Rome.

22. Everything now promised a lasting peace; but before a year had elapsed, Napoleon left the island of Elba with the determination of regaining his lost power. He landed in the south of France on the 1st of March, 1815, and was received with rapturous enthusiasm by the army; resumed the title of emperor, and rapidly advancing upon Paris, entered the city on 20th of March. Louis XVIII. and his family fled on his approach, and Napoleon resumed the sceptre without having shed a drop of blood.

23. He was now proclaimed by the allies an outlaw, and a new coalition was formed against him. Again,

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at the head of a large army, Napoleon struggled for the mastery; but he was finally and completely defeated by the allies, under Blucher and Wellington, in the memorable battle of Waterloo, June 18, 1815. Finding that all was lost, Napoleon now yielded to his fate. He again abdicated the throne, and surrendered himself to the English government. He was subsequently exiled to St. Helena, a solitary and dreary island in the Atlantic, where he remained a prisoner until his death, which took place on the 5th of May, 1821, in the fifty-second year of his age.

24. Napoleon was, unquestionably, one of the most remarkable men who have figured in the history of the world. Rising from obscurity, by the energy of his own genius, to the proudest and most powerful position ever attained in modern times, he presented to the world as a warrior, a sovereign, and a statesman, a combination of great and brilliant qualities rarely witnessed in a single individual. But his character had many great defects. He exercised over his own dominions a military despotism, and his insatiable ambition prompted him to sacrifice, without scruple, the rights and independence of other nations; and his downfall was hailed with exultation by the friends of humanity throughout the world.

25. After the second dethronement of Napoleon, Louis XVIII. again ascended the throne, France was restored to its ancient limits, and a constitutional charter was framed, which secured to the people several important privileges.

26. Louis XVIII. was succeeded, in 1824, by his brother, the Count d'Artois, with the title of Charles X. The reign of this monarch was rendered memorable by the revolution of 1830. His government became obnoxious to the liberal party in France, through the attempts made to check the spirit of liberty by influencing the elections, dissolving the chambers, and restraining the freedom of the press. At length the people of Paris, in July, 1830, took up

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arms against the government, and in *three days*, ending with the 29th of that month, the revolution was completed. Charles X. fled; the throne was declared vacant; the constitutional charter was remodelled; and the Duke of Orleans, cousin to the deposed monarch, was invited to the throne, and accordingly ascended it, August 7, 1830, with the title of Louis Philippe, King of the French.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION VII.

1. What is said of the constitutions formed during the progress of the Revolution, and that in 1799?
2. What had happened previous to this? What is said of the first coalition? What was its fate?
3. What is said of Bonaparte after the treaty of Campo Formio?
4. What is said of the second coalition? What was its success and final result?
5. What is said of Bonaparte after the treaty of Amiens?
6. What happened in the meantime?
7. What happened during the year previous? What was the result of the third coalition? What dimmed the glory of this success?
8. What were the acts of Napoleon soon after?
9. When, and by what powers was the fourth coalition formed? Who commenced hostilities, and what was the result?
10. What was the course of Napoleon subsequently?
11. What were some of the features of the peace of Tilsit?
12. Whither did Napoleon now direct his attention, and what was the result?
13. What was the consequence of these measures?
14. What divided Napoleon's attention during the Peninsular War? What was Napoleon's success in the war with Austria, and how was it concluded?
15. What happened during the campaign of Wagram?
16. What is the remarkable passage, quoted from Alison, relation to this transaction?
17. What was Napoleon's course in 1812?
18. What was the conduct of the Russians on Napoleon approaching Moscow, and what was the result?

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19. How did Napoleon attempt to retrieve his fortunes? By what was he now opposed, and with what result?
20. What happened after the battle of Leipsic?
21. What happened after the allies entered Paris?
22. What happened before a year elapsed?
23. What followed the return of Napoleon? What was his fate?
24. What was his character?
25. What happened after the second dethronement of Napoleon?
26. By whom was Louis XVIII. succeeded? What rendered the reign of Charles X. remarkable? What produced the revolution of 1830, and what was its result?

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## SECTION VIII.

### *From* 1830 A.C., *to* 1868 A.C.—*The Second Empire of France.*

1. THOUGH styled by his admirers the "Napoleon of Peace," Louis Philippe soon became very unpopular. Several attempts were made on his life, and at length, in February, 1848, a new revolution broke out, when he escaped in disguise into England, where he died in exile, and France was declared a Republic.

2. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the great Emperor, and who had made fruitless attempts to raise an insurrection at Strasbourg, in 1836, and at Boulogne, in 1840, was elected a member of the new National Assembly in June, 1848, and declared President of the Republic in the following December.

3. The Red Republicans were enraged at the moderate character which the revolution had assumed, and kept Paris in a state of almost constant insurrection, so that it became nearly impossible to govern. In one of the scenes of blood which ensued (June 26th, 1848), the good Archbishop of Paris was killed while ad-

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ministering consolation to the dying at a street barricade.

4. At length, on December 2nd, 1851, the President dissolved the National Assembly, established universal suffrage, declared Paris in a state of siege, and proposed the election of a president for ten years. This was the memorable *coup-d'état*.

5. On the 1st of January, 1852, the result of the national vote was declared to be that Louis Napoleon was elected President for ten years; and he was accordingly installed in the cathedral of Notre Dame, and took up his residence at the palace of the Tuileries. The republican motto of "Liberty, Fraternity, Equality," was abolished; and M. Thiers, and several leading men who had opposed the *coup-d'état*, were arrested and sent out of France.

6. The President was next elected Emperor by universal suffrage—the votes being nearly eight millions for, and a quarter of a million against; and on December 2nd, 1852, he was proclaimed Emperor, in Paris, under the title of Napoleon III.—the first Napoleon's son, the Duke de Reichstadt, who died in 1832, being regarded as Napoleon II.

7. Thus was established the Second Empire; and France, under Napoleon III., soon rose to a degree of power and magnificence which she had never attained before, even under Louis XIV. or the first Napoleon.

8. The Emperor developed rapidly all the resources of that great country. He encouraged manufactures; established free trade; made commercial treaties with all other nations; fostered science, art, and literature; rebuilt the greater part of Paris in a style of surpassing splendour; improved the other great cities of France; and, at the same time, crushed the power of Russia and Austria in successful wars, raised vast armies, constructed iron fleets, armed both fleets and armies with the most perfect of new inventions in implements of war, and became virtually the arbiter of Europe. Finally, the Great International Exhibition

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of Paris, in 1867, eclipsed all other exhibitions; and during that year the Emperor's court was visited by almost all the sovereigns of the civilized world.

9. Napoleon III. is, however, blamed for great political mistakes. He allowed the Pope to be stripped of the greater part of his territory; he failed to establish the empire of Mexico, and gave offence to America by the attempt; and, finally, he allowed Prussia to crush Austria in 1866, and to set up the great military power of North Germany as a rival to that of France.

10. The great ambition of Napoleon III. has been to efface the memory of Waterloo, and in that he has succeeded.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION VIII.

1. What was the fate of Louis Philippe, and what government was established in France on his fall?
2. Who was Louis Napoleon? What insurrections did he attempt to raise, and what did he become in 1848?
3. What was the conduct of the Red Republicans? How did they act to the Archbishop of Paris?
4. What was the *coup-d'état* of December 2nd, 1851?
5. What followed in 1852?
6. How did the President become Emperor? What were the votes on the occasion, and what was his title?
7. What was the effect of the second empire on France?
8. Enumerate some of the principal results of the reign of Napoleon III.?
9. What have been his great political mistakes?
10. What has been the chief object of his ambition, and how has he succeeded?

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# CHAPTER III.

## ENGLAND—SECTION I.

*From the Invasion of the Country by Julius Cæsar, 55 B.C., to the Union of the Saxon Heptarchy and Foundation of the Mondrchy, 827 A.C.*

1. THE part of the island of Britain now called England, is supposed to have been peopled originally by a colony from Gaul; but at what time there is no record to tell us. The Phœnicians traded at a very early period with the inhabitants of the south-western extremity of the island for copper and tin; but they did not penetrate beyond the coast, and knew nothing of the interior of the country. The earliest authentic accounts we have commence with the invasion by the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, who, fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, crossed over from the Continent, and, with his victorious legions, having forced Cassibelanus, the chief of the Britons, to submit, took possession of the country.

2. But the native princes of the country did not tamely submit, and in the year 43 A.C. a second invasion was made by the Romans, under the emperor Claudius; and Caractacus, the king of the Britons, after a gallant struggle of nine years, was taken prisoner by the Roman general, Ostorius, and sent to Rome. Again, in the year 59 A.C., during the reign of the emperor Nero, the Romans, under Paulus Suetonius, struggled for the mastery. The Britons, led by the heroic queen Boadicea, for a long time kept their enemies in check, and gained several victories over them; but they were finally defeated by the Romans in 61 A.C., and Boadicea, to escape from their power, ended her life by taking poison. The final conquest of the country, however, was not completed until the reign of Titus, when the Roman

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general, Agricola, having defeated Galgacus, subjected it to the Roman dominion. 78 A.C.

3. The Romans built three walls across the island, to protect their southern possessions from the incursions of the Scots and Picts—fierce and warlike races of the northern portions of the island—and retained possession of their conquests for about 400 years.

4. At length, in 426 A.C., the Roman legions were withdrawn from Britain, being needed on the Continent to check the fierce armies of the northern barbarians, who at that time were overrunning the provinces of the empire. The Britons, enervated by their subjection to the Romans, being now left to their own resources, could make but feeble resistance to the incursions of their warlike and hardy neighbours, the Scots and Picts. After a long struggle, however—their appeals for aid from Rome being unheeded—they invited the Saxons from Germany to assist them. This assistance was freely granted, and a Saxon army, under Hengist and Horsa, landed in Britain in 449 A.C., and soon drove back the Scots and Picts to their homes in the north.

5. But the Britons had only made an exchange of masters. The Saxons, delighted with the country, procured a large accession of forces from Germany, composed of Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, and, after vain and ineffectual efforts by the Britons to resist them completed the subjugation of the country, which they finally divided into seven kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy. The kingdoms were Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Northumberland, East Anglia, and Mercia. 584 A.C.

6. During the period of the Heptarchy, which lasted upwards of two hundred years, the country was blessed by the light of Christianity. The first Christian missionary was St. Augustine, who, being sent by Pope Gregory the Great, landed in Britain with forty other monks, in the year 597 A.C. His first convert was Ethelbert I., King of Kent, whose subjects generally

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followed his example, and gradually the pure light of the Gospel spread through the island. The Saxons were previously all pagans, but the Britons had to a great extent embraced Christianity under the Romans.

The Heptarchy, after a succession of dissensions and contests, was finally brought to a close by Egbert, King of Wessex, who, having subdued the several kingdoms, became sole king, and united them into one monarchy, under the name of England. 827 A.C.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION I.

1. What are the early accounts of England? When do the earliest authentic accounts commence?
2. Give an account of the subsequent invasions by the Romans.
3. What was done by the Romans to secure their possessions, and how long did they retain them?
4. What happened in 426 A.C., and, what was the consequence?
5. What course did the Saxons pursue afterwards? Name the kingdoms of the Heptarchy.
6. What happened during the period of the Heptarchy? Who was the first missionary and the first convert?
7. How, and by whom, was the Heptarchy brought to a close?

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## SECTION II.

### *From the Foundation of the Monarchy*, 827 A.C. *to the Norman Conquest*, 1066 A.C.

1. EGBERT had scarcely consolidated his power before the coasts of England were invaded by the Danes, a people whose depredations form a prominent feature in the early history of England. Their incursions, chiefly of a predatory or piratical character, were frequent and destructive, and their descents upon the British islands kept the inhabitants in a constant state of alarm. Egbert, after several attempts to

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stop their ravages, finally defeated them with great slaughter, in 835 A.C. He died the next year. Ethelwolf, his son and successor, was also harassed by these fierce pirates, but overthrew them, in 851 A.C. On the death of Ethelwolf, and during the successive reigns of his sons, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred, and Alfred, the Danes continued, notwithstanding repeated defeats, to commit their depredations upon the shores of England, and finally obtained possession of a large portion of the island.

2. The last-mentioned son of Ethelwolf, Alfred, justly surnamed the Great, at last relieved his kingdom from these fierce barbarians. He ascended the throne in 871 A.C. Though at first defeated by the Danes, and compelled to conceal himself for a time beneath the humblest disguise, he finally triumphed over them in the battle of Edrington.

3. After having thus restored tranquillity to the kingdom, Alfred turned his attention to the arts of peace. He divided England into counties, digested a code of laws, established trial by jury, founded the University of Oxford, instituted schools, and, for the instruction of his subjects, translated a number of works into the Saxon language. He also encouraged agriculture, commerce, and the useful arts, and, by precept and example, inspired his people with a love and respect for religion.

4. The noble character of Alfred the Great has been justly considered one of the finest models of kingly excellence which history presents. His private and public life were equally distinguished for those shining virtues which can alone entitle a man to the epithet of great. His piety as a Christian, his valour and intrepidity as a warrior, his learning and accomplishments as a writer, his wisdom and sagacity as a lawgiver, and his firmness, humanity, and justice as a ruler, have rendered this patriot king an object of unqualified praise and admiration through every succeeding age.

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5. Alfred was succeeded, in 900 A.C., by his son Edward, surnamed the Elder, whose reign was signalized by a continued but successful struggle against the Northumbrians and Danes, who were powerful in the north of England. He succeeded in extending and strengthening the power of his rule over districts which had not owned the sway of his predecessors, and was succeeded, in 924 A.C., by his eldest son, Athelstan, who, pursuing the course of his father, succeeded in silencing all opposition to his government in the kingdom, and has hence been considered by some as the first king who effectually established the kingdom of England.

6. After the death of Athelstan, in 940 A.C., the short reigns of Edmund, Edred, Edwy, Edgar, Edward the Martyr, Ethelred II., and Edmund Ironside, followed in succession, during which but little of prominent interest occurred, except the re-appearance of the Danes in England in the reign of Ethelred II., 994 A.C. These were now led on by their king, Sweyn, who, in 1013 A.C.—Ethelred having fled into Normandy—took possession of the kingdom, which he governed until his death, when Ethelred was restored. On the death of Ethelred, his son, Edmund Ironside, succeeded, in 1016 A.C.

7. But the Danes, having once possessed the throne, were not disposed to resign it so quietly; and Canute, who had succeeded his father, Sweyn, on the throne of Denmark, now asserted his claim to the throne of England. He invaded the country, and compelled Edmund to divide his kingdom with him; and Edmund being shortly afterwards murdered, Canute was acknowledged sole king of England, 1017 A.C. He proved to be an excellent and powerful sovereign, and from his talents obtained the appellation of the Great.

8. He was succeeded, in 1036 A.C., by his son, Harold, surnamed Harefoot, who, after a reign of four years, was succeeded by his brother, Canute II., or

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Hardicanute. This monarch was the last of the Danish kings, and reigned but two years.

9. On the death of Hardicanute, in 1042 A.C., the English threw off the Danish yoke, and restored the Saxon line of kings, in the person of Edward, surnamed the Confessor, the brother of Edmund Ironside. This monarch was a mild and beneficent king, and received the surname of the Confessor in consequence of his piety and virtues. He united all the laws of England in one body, which was styled the Common Law.

10. On the death of Edward, in 1065 A.C. the kingdom was distracted by the claims of several competitors for the crown. Among these were, William, Duke of Normandy, who claimed that the late king had made him his heir, and Harold, son of the Earl of Wessex, and grandson of Esthrita, daughter of Sweyn. Harold having caused himself to be proclaimed king, William of Normandy immediately resolved to maintain his claim by force of arms. He invaded the country at the head of 60,000 men; and having met Harold with an equal force on the field of Hastings, completely defeated him. Harold was slain in the battle, and the nation submitted to William, who ascended the throne with the surname of the Conqueror. 1066 A.C.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION II.

1. What occurred shortly after the establishment of the monarchy? What is said of the Danes during the reigns of Egbert and his immediate successors?
2. Who relieved the kingdom from the Danes and how?
3. What was the course of Alfred after this?
4. What is said of the character of Alfred?
5. Who succeeded Alfred? What signalized his reign Who succeeded Edward the Elder? What is said of Athelstan?
6. What followed the death of Athelstan, and what event happened during the reign of Ethelred II.?

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7. What course was pursued by the Danes on the accession of Edmund Ironside? What was the result? What is said of Canute?
8. Who were the successors of Canute?
9. What happened on the death of Hardicanute? What is said of Edward the Confessor?
10. What distracted the kingdom on the death of Edward? Who were among the claimants to the crown, and what was the result?

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## SECTION III.

### *The Norman Family: From William the Conqueror,* 1066 A.C.—*to Accession of the Plantagenets,* 1154 A.C.

1. WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR was an arbitrary, but able sovereign, whose character was in keeping with the stern and iron age in which he lived. He elevated his Norman followers to every post of distinction, to the exclusion of the native nobles, introduced the use of the Norman language in the courts of justice, and is said to have been the first who established the feudal system in the kingdom. He caused a great register of all the lands of England to be made, containing their value and the tenure by which they were held. This was the famous Doomesday Book.

2. He was succeeded, in 1090 A.C., by his son, William II., surnamed Rufus from his red hair—a monarch whose character is represented as tyrannical. He was accidentally killed by an arrow when hunting in the New Forest, in 1100 A.C.

3. Henry I., surnamed Beauclerk, or the Scholar, the younger brother of William Rufus, usurped the throne which of right belonged to his elder brother, Robert, at that time engaged in a crusade in the Holy Land. The latter, on his return, asserted his right to the crown, but was defeated, taken prisoner, and confined in Wales until his death. Henry, by his marriage with Matilda, great-granddaughter of Edmund Iron-



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side, united the Saxon and Norman families, and was an able and accomplished, though ambitious and licentious monarch.

4. On the death of Henry, in 1135 A.C., the succession of right belonged to his daughter Matilda, or Maud, married first to Henry V., Emperor of Germany, and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou, by whom she had several children, the eldest of whom was named Henry. But Stephen, Earl of Blois, the nephew of the late king, a man of commanding popularity, boldly usurped the throne. The spirited Matilda, at the head of an army, defeated the usurper, and seized the crown. She was, however, in turn defeated by Stephen, who again assumed the sceptre. In 1153 A.C., Henry, the son of Matilda, invaded England with an army, and at the end of the same year a compromise treaty was concluded with Stephen, securing to Henry the succession on the death of the usurper. Stephen died in 1154 A.C., and Henry Plantagenet ascended the throne with the title of Henry II.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION III.

1. What is said of William the Conqueror and his acts? What was the Doomesday Book?
2. Who succeeded him? What is said of William Rufus?
3. What is said of Henry I.?
4. Who was the rightful heir to the throne on Henry's death? Who usurped the throne? What was the result? What happened in 1153?

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SECTION IV.

*Family of Plantagenet: From the Accession of Henry II.*, 1154 A.C., *to the Usurpation of the Branch of Lancaster*, 1400 A.C.

1. HENRY II. was an able and useful sovereign, though his character is blemished by many traits of

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pride, duplicity, and ambition. The most remarkable events in his reign were, the martyrdom of his illustrious chancellor, St. Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, who, at the expense of the king's favour, boldly resisted the encroachments of the civil power on the rights and immunities of the Church; and the invasion and partial conquest of Ireland, 1171 A.C. The odium created against the king, on account of the atrocious murder of Becket, was turned aside by a humiliating and public penance performed by Henry, who, too late, discovered and appreciated the noble qualities of his minister. Ireland, from the reign of this monarch to the present time, has suffered under the cruel weight of the British yoke; and though she has, at various periods since, attempted to assert and maintain her rights as a nation, her own divisions, superadded to the overwhelming power of the British Government, have thwarted all her efforts.

2. Henry was succeeded, in 1189 A.C., by his son, the celebrated Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Lion, of whom we have spoken as a prominent and successful leader of the third Crusade. On his return from this expedition, having been shipwrecked, he attempted to pass through Germany disguised as a pilgrim, but was arrested by the emperor, Henry VI., who detained him a prisoner until his subjects ransomed him by the payment of a heavy sum. Shortly after his return he died of a wound received in storming the castle of Chaluz. Richard was distinguished for his great valour and military talent; but the early part of his reign was marked by a cruel and bloody persecution of the Jews, which has left a stain on his character.

3. He was succeeded by his perfidious brother, John, in 1199 A.C. John's reign is one of the most infamous in the annals of England. He is said to have murdered, with his own hand, his nephew, Prince Arthur, the son of his elder brother, and the rightful heir; in consequence of which, Philip Augustus, King of France, confiscated his estates on the Continent,

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whence he obtained the surname of Sansterre or Lackland. He was a despicable tyrant, possessing no redeeming quality; and so insupportable were his arbitrary infringements upon the rights and privileges of his nobles and people, that the English barons, headed by Archbishop Langton, the primate, extorted from him, on the field of Runnymede, the famous Magna Charta, which secured to all classes throughout the kingdom many important franchises and privileges, and which is to this day regarded as the bulwark of English liberty. 1215 A.C.

4. John Lackland was succeeded, in 1216 A.C., by his son, Henry III., a boy nine years old, under the regency of the Earl of Pembroke. His reign, which lasted fifty-six years, was characterized by constant contentions with his people and the nobles, but it is distinguished as the era of the commencement of the English House of Commons.

5. Edward I., surnamed Longshanks, succeeded his father, the late king, in 1272 A.C. He was one of the ablest of the English sovereigns. As a warrior, he was eminently distinguished, and his wisdom as a legislator secured him the title of the English Justinian. He ratified the provisions of Magna Charta, and since his time there has been a regular succession of English Parliaments. He subdued Wales, which had been previously independent of the English crown; invaded Scotland, and carried Baliol, the king, prisoner to London. Whilst Edward was engaged in war on the Continent, the Scots, roused by the patriotic exertion of the celebrated Sir William Wallace, attempted to regain their independence. A brilliant series of victories at first promised them success; but having been defeated, their noble leader was betrayed into the hands of the English king, by whose orders he was barbarously put to death. Robert Bruce, however, soon took the place which had been so nobly filled by the lamented Wallace, and, having been proclaimed king, again drove the English from the

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borders of Scotland. Edward, roused by this new adversary, prepared for a fresh invasion of Scotland, but died before he reached the confines of that kingdom.

6. He was succeeded by his son, Edward II., who, carrying out the intentions of his father, invaded Scotland with a large army. He was met by the intrepid Bruce on the famous field of Bannockburn, and completely routed. This great battle secured the independence of Scotland, 1314 A.C. Edward, after a weak reign of nineteen years, was basely murdered at the instigation of his infamous queen, Isabella. 1327 A.C.

7. Edward III. succeeded his father, under the regency of his mother, Isabella, in whose right he laid claim to the crown of France, in opposition to Philip of Valois, who had been acknowledged the rightful heir. This claim produced the sanguinary war which has been already noticed in the history of France. It was signalized by the victory gained by the English at Cressy; the taking of Calais; and the battle of Poictiers, gained by the Black Prince, in which the French king, John, was taken prisoner. During the progress of this war, the Scots invaded England, but were defeated by the English, under Edward's heroic queen, Philippa, and their king, David, was carried a prisoner to London, where he was soon joined by the captive King of France. The reign of Edward III. is one of the most brilliant in English history. He was an able, accomplished, and excellent sovereign.

8. He was succeeded, in 1377 A.C., by his weak grandson, Richard II., at the age of eleven years. During his minority the regency was conducted by his three uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, whose divisions distracted the counsels of the government. The Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, was the most prominent and influential. Shortly after the accession of Richard, an insurrection of the people, headed by Wat Tyler, occurred, in consequence of unequal and onerous taxations. The kingdom was

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also engaged, during this reign, in war with France and Scotland.

9. Richard having banished his cousin, Henry, the eldest son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and having, on the death of the duke, confiscated his estates, the young duke, taking advantage of Richard's absence in Ireland, landed in England, raised a large army, and soon compelled the king to resign his crown. Richard was imprisoned, and soon after murdered, and the young Duke of Lancaster ascended the throne with the title of Henry IV. 1400 A.C.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION IV.

1. What is said of Henry II.? What were the most remarkable events of his reign? What is said of Ireland?
2. Who succeeded Henry II.? What is said of Richard Cœur de Lion?
3. Who succeeded Richard? What is said of John, and what occurred in his reign?
4. Who succeeded John? What characterized the reign of Henry III.?
5. Who succeeded Henry III.? What is said of Edward I.? What were some of the events of his reign?
6. Who succeeded Edward I.? What occurred in the reign of Edward II.?
7. Who succeeded Edward II.? What occurred in the reign of Edward III.? What is said of Edward III. and his reign?
8. Who succeeded him? What were some of the events of the reign of Richard II.?
9. How did his reign terminate, and who succeeded him?

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## SECTION V.

### *Branch of Lancaster: From the Usurpation of Henry IV.*, 1400 A.C., *to the Accession of the Branch of York*, 1461 A.C.

1. HENRY IV. was not suffered to hold his usurped authority without opposition. A rebellion, in which

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the English were assisted by the Scots under Douglas, and the Welsh under Owen Glendower, was fomented against him. But he crushed it by the defeat of the rebels and their allies in the bloody battle of Shrewsbury, where Percy of Northumberland, surnamed Hotspur, the leader of the insurgents, was slain. Henry's life was rendered unhappy by the extreme profligacy of his son, the Prince of Wales.

2. This son, whose early career was so unpromising, succeeded his father, in 1413 A.C., with the title of Henry V., and astonished his subjects by a sudden and radical reformation in his conduct and habits. He proved himself one of the most heroic of the English sovereigns. Having revived the claim to the crown of France, he invaded that country, gained the great battle of Agincourt, reduced Normandy, and was declared regent of France and heir to the crown. His career, however, was cut short by death. 1422 A.C.

3. He was succeeded by his son, Henry VI., an infant, under the guardianship of the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester. During his reign the French recovered nearly all the possessions they had lost, their armies being led by the heroic Joan of Arc; and it was also signalized by the bloody civil war, occasioned by the claim of the Duke of York to the throne.

4. The House of Lancaster, which, in the person of Henry IV., had usurped the throne, did so in violation of the right which existed in the House of York. Both houses were descended from Edward III.—that of York from the third son, and that of Lancaster from the fourth. The Duke of York now boldly asserted his claim, and a fierce and sanguinary war between the rival houses, called the War of the Two Roses, was the consequence. Henry himself was a mild but weak sovereign, totally incapable of meeting the exigency; but he had in his wife, the distinguished Margaret of Anjou, a queen who fully supplied his defects. The adherents of the House of York, however, obtained the advantage. They defeated the

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Lancastrians in the battle of St. Albans, and subsequently in that of Northampton, where Henry was taken prisoner. 1460 A.C.

5. Queen Margaret fled to Scotland, whence she soon returned with a large army, and gained the battle of Wakefield, in which the Duke of York was slain. His son, however, with a numerous army, entered London in triumph, and was proclaimed king by the title of Edward IV. 1461 A.C.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION V.

1. What happened on the accession of Henry IV.? What rendered his life unhappy?
2. Who succeeded him? What were some events of the reign of Henry V.?
3. Who succeeded him? What occurred during the reign of Henry VI.?
4. What was the origin of the civil war? What is said of Henry VI. and his queen? What party gained the advantage?
5. What occurred afterwards?

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SECTION VI.

*Branch of York: From the Accession of Edward IV.*, 1461 A.C., *to the Death of Richard III.*, 1485 A.C.

1. EDWARD IV., at the moment he was proclaimed king, had much reason to doubt the stability of his power, as he still had an active opponent in the field in the person of the intrepid and courageous Margaret, at the head of an army of 60,000 men. He, therefore, with a large force, commanded by himself and the Earl of Warwick, immediately marched against her. A bloody and obstinate battle ensued, at Towton, in which Edward was completely victorious. Margaret, with her son, fled, and, after a series of adventures, reached Flanders. Henry VI., the

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deposed monarch, was subsequently arrested, and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

2. The Earl of Warwick, the most powerful nobleman in the kingdom, to whose courage and great abilities Edward owed his crown, having been offended by the arbitrary conduct of the king, revolted from his authority, and openly espoused the cause of the Lancastrians. Edward was deposed: Warwick caused Henry VI., who had been in the Tower for six years, to be restored to the throne. From these acts he received the title of Kingmaker. 1471 A.C.

3. This triumph, however, was of but short duration. The next year Edward, who had fled to Flanders, returned; again deposed Henry; gained the bloody battle of Barnet, in which the gallant Warwick was slain; and afterwards completely routed the forces which the indefatigable Queen Margaret had again collected, in the desperate battle of Tewkesbury. Margaret was taken prisoner, but was afterwards ransomed by the King of France, where she spent the remainder of her days. King Henry was murdered in prison about the same time, it was supposed by the Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III.

4. Edward IV. was succeeded, in 1483, by his son, Edward V., a boy thirteen years of age, under the guardianship of his bloody and cruel uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester. The perfidious duke, whose deformed and ungainly person but faintly represented the revolting character of his mind, aimed at the supreme power. Having caused many of the most distinguished noblemen, whom he feared, to be put to death without trial, he usurped the throne, pronouncing his nephews, Edward V., and his younger brother, the Duke of York, illegitimate, and caused himself to be proclaimed king, with the title of Richard III. Two months after the two young princes were foully murdered in the Tower, where they had been confined.

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5. The usurper did not long enjoy his blood-stained crown. The Duke of Richmond, the last surviving heir of the House of Lancaster, having landed in England, and collected an army, determined to sweep the tyrant from the throne. Richard prepared to resist the invader. The two armies met on the field of Bosworth, where a bloody and obstinate battle was fought, ending in the defeat and death of Richard. The Duke of Richmond was proclaimed king on the field, with the title of Henry VII. 1485 A.C.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION VI.

1. What occurred after Edward IV. was proclaimed king?
2. What was the course of the Earl of Warwick after this?
3. What happened the next year? What became of Margaret and King Henry?
4. Who succeeded Edward IV.? What is said of the Duke of Gloucester, and how did he accomplish his designs?
5. In what manner was the reign of Richard III. terminated?

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## SECTION VII.

### *The Tudor Family: From the Accession of Henry VII.*, 1485 A.C., *to the Death of Elizabeth*, 1603 A.C.

1. HENRY VII., the son of Edmund Tudor, was, through his mother, the heir of the House of Lancaster; but the adverse and the better title to the English crown was vested in Elizabeth, heiress of the House of York, and daughter of Edward IV. Immediately after he was proclaimed king, Henry married Elizabeth, thus perfecting his title by the union of the two rival houses, and effectually ending the long and bloody strife which, during thirty years, had desolated England.

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2. The reign of Henry was prosperous, and was noted principally for the promotion of industry, the extension of commerce, the increase of wealth, and for the general encouragement given to the cultivation of the useful arts.

3. He was succeeded, in 1509 A.C., by his son, the infamous Henry VIII., whose reign, like that of Nero, commenced under the brightest auspices, and with acts of mildness and clemency, but at last became marked by revolting acts of cruelty, tyranny, and unprincipled rapacity. In the early part of his reign he engaged in a war against Louis XII. of France, which resulted in no benefit. He was successful in a war against Scotland, which ended in the victory at Flodden, where James IV., the Scottish king, was slain; and he also acted as an umpire in the disputes which were raging on the Continent between Charles V. of Germany and Francis I. of France.

4. During his reign Martin Luther commenced preaching the doctrines of the Reformation in Germany, and Henry VIII. was so zealously opposed to the movement, that he wrote a book against the reformer, which obtained for him, from Pope Leo X., the title of "Defender of the Faith," a title which his successors retain to the present day.

5. His subsequent course was as remarkable as it was infamous. His first wife was the high-minded and virtuous Catherine of Arragon, whom the king sought to divorce, having conceived a criminal passion for Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honour. He applied to Pope Clement VII., who refused to grant the divorce as contrary to divine law. He was also opposed in his base designs by his prime minister, the celebrated Cardinal Wolsey. The consequence was, that Wolsey was degraded from his high station, and Archbishop Cranmer was elevated in his stead. This crafty prelate became the obsequious tool of his royal master. Through his instrumentality—in the face of the Pope's refusal to sanction the act—Henry was

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pronounced divorced from his queen, and married Anne Boleyn. 1533 A.C.

6. For this act he was excommunicated by the Pope, and he immediately abandoned himself to a course of reckless tyranny. He abolished the authority of the Sovereign Pontiff; caused himself to be declared head of the English Church; suppressed the monasteries and religious houses, and persecuted both Catholics and Protestants. Thus commenced the Reformation in England. Three years after his marriage with Anne Boleyn, Henry caused that unfortunate woman to be beheaded, and on the day following her execution married Jane Seymour. She died in giving birth to a son, afterwards Edward VI. Henry's next wife was Anne of Cleves, whom he soon discarded. He then married Catherine Howard, whom he caused to be tried for adultery and beheaded; and finally bestowed his royal favour on his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, who had the singular fortune to survive the tyrant. He died 1547 A.C.

7. Among the illustrious victims of the remorseless tyranny of this monster, were the venerable Bishop Fisher and the illustrious Sir Thomas More, the high chancellor, for refusing to acknowledge his supremacy as head of the English Church.

8. Henry VIII. was succeeded by his son, Edward VI., in the tenth year of his age, under the guardianship of his uncle, the Duke of Somerset. His short reign is remarkable for the establishment of the Protestant religion, for which his father had paved the way. Edward died in the 16th year of his age, having been previously persuaded by the crafty Duke of Northumberland to nominate Jane Grey, great-granddaughter of Henry VII., his successor, to the exclusion of his half-sisters, Mary and Elizabeth.

9. On the death of Edward VI., in 1552, his half-sister, Mary, daughter of Catherine of Arragon, was acknowledged the rightful heir to the throne. Lady Jane Grey, who had been proclaimed queen by the

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partisans of Northumberland, reigned but ten days, when she resigned the crown and retired from public life, and Mary quietly ascended the throne. The Duke of Northumberland was condemned and beheaded for treason, but Lady Jane and her husband were pardoned. The spirit and designs of Northumberland, however, did not die with him; and shortly after a second conspiracy was formed for the purpose of supplanting Mary in favour of Lady Jane. This design having been discovered, the principal leaders, with the Lady Jane and her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, suffered death on the scaffold.

10. Mary, who had always remained a firm and devoted Catholic, immediately after her accession re-established the Catholic religion in England; but, in doing so, suffered her zeal to degenerate into a spirit of intolerance. The severe enactments, however, that were directed against her Protestant subjects, many of which must have been passed without her knowledge, while she was confined to a sickbed, were dictated by her counsellors through motives of state policy. The constant intrigues of the Protestants to subvert her authority, and the revolts and disturbances which they created, occasioned, and, though these causes cannot justify, they, at least in a great measure, extenuate, the rigour which was exercised. The age was one in which religious intolerance had been evoked by the fierce strifes and divisions that accompanied the progress of the Reformation, and its dark and implacable spirit operated in many cases upon Catholics as well as Protestants. Notwithstanding the reproach which must be charged upon her public acts, Mary is represented as a person free from a vindictive or implacable spirit, and, in private life, as pious, clement, compassionate, and liberal.

11. In the second year of her reign she was married to Philip II. of Spain, a union which was unpopular among her subjects, and productive of little happiness to herself. In the last year of her reign

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the English lost Calais, which they had possessed 210 years. Mary died without issue, in 1558. A.C.

12. She was succeeded by her half-sister, Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn. Shortly after her accession this queen declared herself opposed to the Catholic religion—established the Protestant faith as the religion of England—assumed the title of head of the English Church—and, without any of the causes which induced the severity spoken of in Mary's reign, commenced a systematic and cruel persecution of her Catholic subjects. During her reign, she framed against them the oppressive penal statutes, which disgraced the statute-books of England for nearly three centuries, and portions of which remain to this day unrepealed.

13. The celebrated and unfortunate Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, granddaughter of Henry VII., having claimed to be next heir to the English throne, on the ground that Elizabeth, being the daughter of Anne Boleyn, was illegitimate, aroused against her the fear, jealousy, and resentment of the English queen. Circumstances of the most tragical and distressing character having driven the beautiful and accomplished Queen of Scots from her own kingdom, she—relying upon the plausible professions of the Queen of England—sought a refuge from her persecutors at the hands of Elizabeth. The asylum she found was a prison. The stern and cruel Queen of England had dissembled, but had never forgotten her fear and resentment. After a cruel captivity of eighteen years, the ill-fated Queen of Scotland was brought to a trial, which was a mere mockery, condemned upon base and slanderous charges, and was beheaded by order of Elizabeth, 1587 A.C. This atrocious act has stamped a stain of infamy on the character of Elizabeth, which will descend with her name to the latest posterity.

14. The reign of Elizabeth is one of the most striking and prosperous in the history of England. She was a woman possessed of masculine powers of mind

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and singular abilities as a sovereign; and the splendid, though despotic, course which marked her policy elevated England to a more brilliant position than it had ever before attained. She grouped around her throne some of the brightest intellects that England ever claimed. Among these may be mentioned Bacon, Burleigh, and Walsingham, as statesmen; Sir Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Robert, Earl of Essex, as commanders; and Spenser and William Shakspeare, as poets. The military operations of her reign were not extensive, though she enforced by her stern and decided rule the marked respect of the other powers of Europe. Philip II. of Spain, indignant on account of the aid Elizabeth had given the people of the Netherlands in their revolt against him, fitted out an immense fleet, called the "Invincible Armada," for the purpose of invading and subduing England; but the vast armament never reached its destination, having been completely destroyed by storms and the brilliant seamanship of the English admirals—Howard and Sir Francis Drake.

15. Of the private character of Elizabeth nothing favourable can be said. Insincere, treacherous, cruel, and tyrannical, she appeared destitute of every gentle quality which adorns her sex. With many of the brightest traits of intellect she united the darkest qualities of the heart, which, at an advanced age, and up to the day of her death, swayed and controlled her actions. She died in 1603, in the 45th year of her reign and the 70th of her age.

### QUESTIONS ON SECTION VII.

1. What was the title of Henry VII. to the crown? How were the claims of York and Lancaster united?
2. What is said of the reign of Henry VII.?
3. By whom was he succeeded? What events happened in the early portion of his reign?
4. How did Henry obtain the title of "Defender of the Faith"?

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5. What is said of his subsequent course? What produced disputes with the Pope, and what was the result?
6. What followed his marriage with Anne Boleyn? What became of Anne Boleyn? Who were the other wives of Henry VIII.?
7. What illustrious men were put to death during his reign?
8. Who succeeded Henry VIII.? What occurred during the reign of Edward VI.?
9. Who had been proclaimed queen, and what was the result? What became of Lady Jane Grey?
10. What did Mary do shortly after her accession? What is said of the severity exercised against the Protestants?
11. What happened in the second and in the last year of her reign?
12. Who succeeded Mary? What happened shortly after the accession of Elizabeth?
13. What is said of Mary Queen of Scots, and what was her fate?
14. What is said of Elizabeth and her reign? What is said of the military operations during her reign?
15. What is said of Elizabeth's private character?

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## SECTION VIII.

### *The Stuart Family: From the Accession of James I., 1603, A.C. to the Death of Anne, 1714. A.C.*

1. On her deathbed Elizabeth nominated as her successor James VI., king of Scotland, son of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, and great-grandson of Henry VII. That monarch accordingly ascended the English throne, with the title of James I., and thus united the crowns of the two kingdoms. His reign was comparatively tranquil, though its commencement was marked by two conspiracies—one for the purpose of placing his cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne; and the other, called the Gunpowder Plot, concocted by a few fanatics, with the horrible design of blowing up the

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King, Lords, and Commons, when convened in Parliament. Both, however, were discovered and thwarted. Sir Walter Raleigh, after a long captivity, was beheaded for his participation in the first; and Guy Fawkes, the leader of the second, suffered the just penalty of his crime.

2. James I. was succeeded, in 1625 A.C., by his son, Charles I. This most unfortunate and ill-fated monarch ascended the throne under apparently favourable auspices. But circumstances speedily developed a state of affairs portentous of great disasters—a foreign war, an empty treasury, a refractory Parliament, and a people distracted by fierce religious dissensions. Parliament having refused to grant supplies to conduct the war, Charles adopted the impolitic course of attempting to replenish his exhausted treasury by levying taxes without consent of Parliament. He next tried to force upon his subjects, throughout England and Scotland, a strict conformity to the Liturgy of the Church of England, which was vehemently opposed by the Puritans, or Calvinists, who were very numerous. These acts produced terrible results. Parliament sided with the Puritans; and, refusing the demands of Charles for supplies, taunted him with open infringement of their privileges, illegal levy of taxes, and interference with the religious rights of his subjects. Charles, in despair, dissolved the Parliament, and convened another, but with no better success. The new Parliament caused the chief advisers of the king, the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud, to be condemned and beheaded; and, finally, the rupture between Charles and his Parliament became so complete that both parties resorted to arms, and a civil war, in every part of the kingdom, was the consequence. 1642 A.C.

3. Charles, supported by the friends of the Established Church and his Catholic subjects, who were styled Cavaliers, gained several advantages at first over the Parliamentary forces, composed of the Puri-



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tans, and styled Roundheads. The king's armies were commanded, during the civil war, by himself, the Earl of Lindsay, Prince Rupert, and Sir Jacob Astley; and the chief command of the army of the Parliament was successively held by the Earl of Essex, Lord Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell. In the battles of Edgehill and Newbury the king's forces had the advantage, but in those of Marston Moor and Naseby they were entirely routed. 1645 A.C.

4. The disastrous battle of Naseby having prostrated the power of Charles, he trusted in the loyalty of his Scottish subjects, and delivered himself into their hands. They, however, to their eternal shame, delivered the unhappy monarch to the Parliament, for the sum of £400,000. After an imprisonment of two years, Charles was arraigned before a tribunal established by Parliament, and tried, condemned, and beheaded, as "traitor, tyrant, and murderer." He received his sentence from his ruthless judges with firmness, though protesting against their authority to try him, and met his fate with a serene and dignified composure truly royal. 1649 A.C.

5. Soon after this event, which shocked the better feelings of the nation at large, the regicides abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords, and a republican government was established, with the supreme power resting in the House of Commons. Episcopacy had been abolished after the execution of Laud, and Presbyterianism had become the ascendant religion in the kingdom. But now a new party, called Independents, rapidly acquired power, from the influence and aid given to them by Fairfax and Cromwell at the head of the army of the Commonwealth, and finally they absorbed all authority.

6. During this time a civil war raged in Ireland, where the people sided with the king; and the Scotch and many of the English, shocked at the murder of the king, rebelled against the authority of the usurpers. Cromwell, leaving the English rebels to be dealt with

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by some of his generals, passed rapidly over to Ireland, and having there crushed the insurgents, returned, and advancing against the Scots, defeated them in the battle of Dunbar. Charles II., son of the late monarch, however, penetrated into England with an army; but Cromwell having quickly followed, overtook him at Worcester, where a battle was fought, and the royalists were entirely defeated. Charles escaped to France with great difficulty, and Cromwell entered London in triumph. 1651 A.C.

7. The next year a war broke out between England and Holland, on account of the Navigation Act, which, while it was the source of the greatest benefits to the English interests, bore oppressively upon those of Holland, at that time one of the leading commercial powers of Europe. This war, rendered famous by a series of naval battles, terminated in the triumph of England. The English admiral, Blake, and his rivals, the Dutch naval commanders, Van Tromp and De Ruyter, were the leading heroes in this contest. 1653 A.C.

8. At this time the Parliament, which had been in session twelve years, and is known in history as the Long Parliament, incurred the displeasure of Cromwell, who, secure in the attachment of the army, resolved, by terminating its existence, to invest himself with supreme power. With a body of 300 soldiers, ready at the first signal to support him, he entered the Parliament house, and having vehemently upbraided the assembly, declared the Parliament dissolved, turned the members from the house, and locked the doors. Cromwell then called a new Parliament, composed of narrow-minded fanatics, which, from the quaint name of a leading member—Praise-God Barebones—was styled the Barebones Parliament. This body met in April, 1653, and was dissolved in the following December, at which time a new constitution was formed, and Oliver Cromwell gained the great object of his ambition, being a king in all but name. He assumed the title of Protector. He coveted that of king, but feared to take it.

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9. Cromwell administered the government with great ability, and became the most powerful ruler in Europe. He made the English Commonwealth respected throughout the world, and his fleets and armies added brilliant lustre to the fame of England. He was one of the most extraordinary men of modern times, and up to the time of Napoleon, there was no personage in history who equalled him in the singular and powerful combination of talents as a warrior and a statesman. His character, however, is distinguished by many traits which render his name odious, and sully the great qualities he possessed. His hypocrisy was only equalled by his ruthless cruelty; and his unbounded ambition prompted him to sacrifice the freedom of his country, and to trample upon those principles to the advocacy of which he owed his power, and to the observance of which he stood pledged before mankind. He was deeply imbued with the religious fanaticism which formed so prominent a feature in the characters of his puritanical followers, and which influenced the whole tenor of his life. His protectorate, which forms a short but brilliant period of five years, was ended by his death, September 3, 1658.

10. He was succeeded in office by his son, Richard Cromwell, who, possessing none of the abilities which distinguished his father, retired in the course of a few months. The wretched state of affairs which immediately followed, called for prompt and decisive action; and, through the instrumentality and ability of General Monk, afterwards Duke of Albemarle, a new Parliament was assembled, and Charles II. was proclaimed king, and restored to the throne of his ancestors. 1660 A.C.

11. Charles II. commenced his reign by the passage of an act of general amnesty, but excepted all those who immediately participated in the death of his father. Ten of the judges who had condemned him were executed. Episcopacy was re-established. A

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war was declared by England against Holland, in 1664, which lasted for three years, and was concluded by a treaty at Breda, by which the Dutch ceded to the English the colony of New Amsterdam, in America, which was thenceforth styled New York.

12. During this war London was visited by the horrors of pestilence and conflagration. Upwards of 100,000 inhabitants fell victims to the plague; and in the next year the great fire of London reduced to ashes 13,202 dwellings, 80 churches, many hospitals and other public buildings. 1666 A.C.

13. Charles II. was distinguished by the same despotic and arbitrary disposition which characterized all the Stuarts. He was, moreover, ruinously prodigal, and in his morals loose and dissolute. His court reflected but too truly these characteristics of the monarch, and a general dissoluteness of manners and morals prevailed in the metropolis.

14. During his reign the Catholics were persecuted, on account of being falsely charged, by a notorious perjurer, Titus Oates, with being engaged in a conspiracy against the government. Among the distinguished Catholics who fell victims to this infamous falsehood, was the Earl of Stafford. The Rye House Plot, although by some doubted as to having had any real existence, was detected in 1683. The Duke of Monmouth, the king's natural son, and Lords Shaftesbury, Russell, Grey, and others, were implicated in this treason, which contemplated the assassination of the king, and Lord Russell and Algernon Sydney were executed. The passage of the Habeas Corpus Act, securing all persons from illegal imprisonment, took place in this reign, in 1678.

15. Charles, having died without legitimate issue, was succeeded, in 1685, by his younger brother, James II., who, immediately after his accession, made public profession of the Catholic religion. He was shortly after compelled to crush a rebellion, fomented by the late king's illegitimate son the Duke of Mon-

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mouth, who aspired to the throne. The rebels were defeated; and Monmouth, being taken prisoner, was beheaded. James subsequently granted to his subjects universal liberty of conscience; but being too eager and imprudent in his endeavours to forward the interests of the religion he had embraced, he incurred the aversion of his Protestant subjects. They, in consequence, invited William, Prince of Orange, who had married Mary, eldest daughter of James, to supplant him, and assume the government. William accordingly crossed over to England with a large army; the principal nobility and officers joined his standard; and James, finding himself betrayed and abandoned even by his own children, fled to France. The throne was proclaimed vacant, and the crown was settled upon William and Mary, 1689 A.C. This event is styled the Revolution, which resulted in the establishment of many important principles of the British Constitution, as it now exists. Catholics were excluded from the rights of succession to the throne, which was settled on William and Mary and their heirs; and the rights of the people and the prerogatives of the king were clearly and fully defined.

16. James, in the meanwhile, determined to make an effort to regain his lost power; and, encouraged by the loyalty and devotion of the people of Ireland, landed at Kinsale, made a public entry into Dublin, and placed himself in command of a large army. He was, however, defeated by William in the disastrous battle of the Boyne, and escaped once more to France, 1690 A.C. The battle of Aughrim overwhelmed the hopes of his adherents in Ireland, and that country submitted to the authority of William.

17. On the death of William, in 1702 (Mary having died seven years before), the crown devolved on Anne, the second daughter of James II. Her reign was distinguished for the brilliant career of the Duke of Marlborough, in the war in which England, Germany, and Holland were united against France, and which was terminated by the peace of Utrecht, 1713; for the

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constitutional Union of England and Scotland, under the name of Great Britain; and on account of the flourishing state of science and literature. Anne was the last sovereign of the House of Stuart, and died 1714 A.C.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION VIII.

1. Whom did Elizabeth name as her successor? What occurred during the reign of James I.?
2. Who succeeded him? What events transpired during the reign of Charles I.? What were the consequences of the acts of Charles I.? What was done by the new Parliament, and what finally happened?
3. What party was at first successful? Who supported Charles? Who the Parliament? Who were the commanders on both sides? What was the result of the civil war?
4. What happened after the battle of Naseby? What was the fate of Charles?
5. What was done by the regicides shortly after? What became of the ascendant religion in the kingdom? What new party acquired power, and by whom was aid given?
6. What occurred in the meantime? What did Cromwell do? What did Charles II. do, and what became of him?
7. Between whom did a war break out, and what was its cause. How did it terminate? Who were the leading heroes in the contest?
8. Who incurred the displeasure of Cromwell? On what did Cromwell resolve, and what was the result? What was the new Parliament called? What did Oliver Cromwell gain, and what did he assume?
9. What is said of Cromwell's acts? What is said of the character of Cromwell?
10. Who succeeded him in office? What followed?
11. How did Charles II. commence his reign? What were some of the events of his reign?
12. What happened during this war?
13. What is said of Charles II. and his court?
14. What other events occurred in his reign?

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15. Who succeeded him? What occurred after the accession of James II.? What occurred subsequently? What is this event styled, and how did it result?
16. What was the subsequent course of James? What was the result?
17. Who succeeded him? What distinguished her reign? When did Anne die?

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### SECTION IX.

### *House of Brunswick: From the Accession of George I.*, 1714 A.C., *to* 1837 A.C.

1. ACCORDING to the law of succession enacted in 1701, settling the crown in the line of the Princess Sophia Palatine, after William and Anne, George, Elector of Hanover, who was the son of the Princess Sophia, and the great-grandson of James I., succeeded to the throne, on the death of Anne, with the title of George I., 1714 A.C.

2. The two great parties which had, since the time of Charles II., divided the kingdom, were styled Whigs and Tories: the former advocating the rights of the people, the latter favouring those of the crown. George I., on his accession, placed the Whigs in power, as they were his strongest advocates, and dismissed the Tory ministry. This produced a great ferment, and many of the enraged Tory leaders took part in the rebellion which then broke out in Scotland, in favour of the Pretender, Prince Edward, son of James II. The battle of Preston and Sheriff Muir, however, in which George's forces were victorious, crushed this outbreak. The subsequent part of this reign was generally pacific and prosperous.

3. George I. was succeeded, in 1727, by his son, George II., a monarch whose policy was warlike, and the military movements of whose reign were numerous and important. On his accession he concluded, by treaty, a war with Spain, which had languished during

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the reign of his father. Hostilities, however, were revived with that country in 1739. In 1744, England declared war against France, and assisted Maria Theresa in the war of the Austrian succession, which we have already noticed in the history of France. In 1745, Charles Edward, son of the Pretender, made a gallant effort to regain the throne of his ancestors. He invaded Scotland, and defeated the royal forces at Preston Pans; penetrated into Northumberland; took Carlisle, and advanced as far as Derby. The next year he was again victorious in the battle of Falkirk; but he was completely defeated at Culloden, and compelled to fly to France. This was the last effort of the Stuarts to reascend the throne. In 1756, war was renewed between England and France. This war, growing out of the American possessions of the two powers, is known in America as the French and Indian war. It terminated unfavourably for France, which power was compelled, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, to yield Canada, Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton, to Great Britain.

4. George II. was succeeded by his grandson, George III., in 1760. The reign of this monarch was the longest and most eventful in the annals of England. In 1762, Great Britain declared war against Spain, and took possession of several of the islands in the Spanish West Indies. In 1765, the British took possession of Bengal, in the East Indies, and subsequently extended their dominions over a vast portion of India. In 1775, the American Revolution (of which we treat hereafter) broke out, and ended, in 1783, in the triumph of American patriots, and the independence of the United States. In 1793, Great Britain declared war against the French Revolutionists, and commenced the series of military and naval operations against France, which have already been noticed in the history of that country, and which ended in the triumph of the allied powers of Europe over Napoleon, in 1815. In 1798, a civil war broke out in Ireland; and in 1800 that ill-fated country

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was united to Great Britain. In 1811, the king having become insane, his son, the Prince of Wales, was appointed Regent. In 1812, the United States of America declared war against Great Britain. This war, which was concluded by the treaty of Ghent, in 1815, will be noticed hereafter. George III. died in 1820, having reigned sixty years, during which some of the greatest men who have illustrated the history of any country were grouped around his throne, as statesmen, generals, philosophers, orators, and poets.

5. The Prince of Wales, who, during the last ten years of his father's life, had acted as regent, succeeded in 1820, with the title of George IV. He was a monarch of considerable abilities, although his early life had been spent in prodigality and vice. The most important events of his reign were the still further extension of the British Empire in India; the aid extended by Great Britain to the Greeks in their struggle for independence, which was secured by the naval victory of Navarino, over the Turks, by the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia, in 1827; and by the passage, in 1829, of the Catholic Emancipation Bill, which relieved the Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland from most of the disabilities under which they had so long been crushed.

6. George IV. was succeeded, in 1830, by his brother, William, Duke of Clarence, with the title of William IV. During the pacific reign of this monarch, a great measure of parliamentary reform was passed by both houses, after having agitated the nation. It related to the mode of representation, and is known as the Reform Bill of 1832.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION IX.

1. Who succeeded Anne?
2. What were the two great parties in England styled? Which was George's choice, and what followed?
3. Who succeeded George I.? What is said of George II.? What are some of the events of his reign?

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4. Who succeeded George II.? What is said of the reign of George III.? What events happened during the reign of George II.? When did he die, and what is said of the great men of his time?
5. Who succeeded George III.? What is said of him? What were some of the events of his reign?
6. Who succeeded George IV.? What happened during the reign of William IV.?

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## SECTION X.

### *The Reign of Queen Victoria.*

1. WILLIAM IV. was succeeded, in 1837, by Victoria, the daughter of his brother, the Duke of Kent. The queen was entering on her 19th year when she came to the throne, and was crowned June 28th, 1838. She was married, in 1840, to Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg Gotha, who died in 1861, and by whom she had a family of four sons and five daughters.

2. Her reign has been a period of the greatest social progress in the history of the world, arising not from any convulsion or great political effort, but from the natural advance of social science and enlightenment, and not confined to any one country. It has been the epoch of railways, electric telegraphs, free trade, and international exhibitions.

3. The most remarkable events of the reign have been the Chinese War, in 1839; the Penny Postage, in 1840; the repeal of the Corn Laws, in 1846; the great Chartist or democratic movement, in 1848; the establishment of the Catholic Hierarchy of England, in 1851, and the consequent outbreak of anti-Catholic bigotry and intolerance which followed, and which inflicted an indelible disgrace on the English character; the Russian War, in 1854, ending with the fall of Sebastopol, in 1855; the second China War, in 1856; the Indian Mutiny, in 1857; the great International Exhibitions of 1851, 1862, &c.; the Cotton Famine, in 1862; the Cattle Plague, in 1865; the

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success of the Atlantic Cable, in 1866; the terror produced by the Fenian movement, in 1867; the new Reform Bill in the same year; the recognition of the principle of disestablishing the Irish Church, in 1868; and the Abyssinian Expedition of the latter year.

4. In the midst of all the great material advantages which England has enjoyed during this reign, she has, unfortunately, distinguished herself, from time to time, by gross examples of wholesale commercial dishonesty, by disgraceful manifestations of religious bigotry, reviving the worst spirit of past ages; and by an extreme reluctance to remedy any of the evils inflicted by her ages of misgovernment and tyranny on Ireland.

5. England has also lately retired very much from the arena of European politics—partly from selfishness, and partly from a sense of weakness; and has left France and the other great military nations to settle the balance of power as they chose—thus sinking almost into the position of a second-rate power, so far as international policy is concerned.

QUESTIONS ON SECTION X.

1. When did Queen Victoria succeed to the throne? When was she crowned? and married? How many children has she had?
2. What has her reign been remarkable for?
3. Mention the principal events of her reign, and the dates at which they occurred?
4. What are the faults which have chiefly distinguished England during this time?
5. What position has England latterly held in European politics?

## CHAPTER IV.

### SCOTLAND.

*From the Earliest Accounts to the Accession of James VI. to the Throne of England*, 1603 A.C.

1. SCOTLAND, which forms the northern portion of the island of Britain, is supposed to have been first

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peopled by the Britons from the southern portion, or by the Caledonians, both of Celtic origin. About 320 A.C., a large emigration of Scots from Ireland, under the conduct of Fergus, entered Britain, and settled on the western coast of that portion now known as Scotland, and then termed Caledonia; and shortly after they appear connected with the Picts—another tribe inhabiting the country—in predatory expeditions against the Romans and Britons inhabiting the south of the island.

2. After they had been—as we have seen—finally driven back from the borders of England by the Saxons, the Scots, Picts, and Caledonians turned their arms against each other, and carried on a continued warfare until about the year 843 A.C., when Kenneth II., King of the Scots, conquered the other tribes, brought the whole country to subjection, and first gave it the name of Scotland.

3. After Kenneth II., who was the thirtieth king of the Scots in a direct line from Fergus, there were fifteen kings in regular succession, to the time of Duncan, in 1040 A.C., when that monarch was murdered by his cousin, Macbeth, who usurped the throne, and, having reigned fifteen years, was killed in battle. The rightful heir, Malcolm III., son of Duncan, then succeeded; and after him there were ten kings to the time of John Baliol, who was dethroned by Edward I. of England, in 1296 A.C. Shortly after this event, Sir William Wallace made a gallant but ineffectual struggle to regain the independence of his county—a struggle which was, however, afterwards renewed by Robert Bruce, who had succeeded to the throne, and was triumphant on the field of Bannockburn. 1306 A.C.

4. David II., who succeeded Robert Bruce, having died without issue, was succeeded, in 1370 A.C., by his nephew, Robert Stuart, with the title of Robert II., the first of the royal house of Stuart, which afterwards figured so conspicuously in the annals of

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England. After him there were eight sovereigns of that family in regular succession, who sat on the throne of Scotland—namely, Robert III., James I., James II., James III., James IV., James V., Mary—the beautiful and unfortunate queen, who fell a victim to the insatiable cruelty of Elizabeth of England—and her son, James VI.

5. James VI., who ascended the throne of Scotland in 1587 A.C., governed the kingdom with considerable ability, until 1603 A.C., when, as we have seen, on the death of Elizabeth, he succeeded to the throne of England with the title of James I. In his reign Scotland became united to England under one crown; and in the reign of Queen Anne (1707), was incorporated with England as one kingdom. Since then the history of Scotland has merged in that of England.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IV.

1. What are the early accounts of the Scots and their settlement in Scotland?
2. What happened after the Scots and Picts had been driven from England by the Saxons?
3. What was the succession of kings to the time of Robert Bruce?
4. What happened on the death of David II.? How many of the family of Stuart reigned in Scotland?
5. What is said of James VI.? What happened in 1603 and 1707? What is said of the history of Scotland since then?

## CHAPTER V.

### IRELAND.

1. IT is very remarkable that Ireland possesses records of a much earlier antiquity than any other country in northern Europe, and that these records are strongly supported by the researches of modern scholars. This is especially true of the accounts we have of the early population of Ireland; but the actual

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dates assigned for very early occurrences in the ancient history of Ireland, as of all other countries, are liable to controversy.

2. The first colony mentioned as entering Ireland, was that of the Firbolgs. These were, no doubt, a tribe of the earliest Celtic population of Europe, and they found a people called Fomorians, of unknown origin, occupying the sea-coast of Ireland before them. The Firbolgs, who were a pastoral people, were subdued by the succeeding colony, called Tuatha de Danann, who appear to have been much more advanced in civilization, and who, from their superior knowledge, were regarded as necromancers. They are supposed by some to have been of Teutonic race; but they were, in their turn, conquered by the Milesian colony, who came into Ireland from Spain several hundred years—some say one thousand and some more—before the birth of Christ.

3. The Milesians were decidedly a Celtic race, and were the same people who were called Scoti or Scots by the Romans, about 200 years after Christ. They were very warlike, and less advanced in civilization than the Tuatha de Danann. By themselves they were called Gael, from an ancestor of their race, and that name is still retained by the Irish, their language being called Gaelic. The name of the country at the arrival of the Milesians was Erin, and this is also still retained in the native language.

4. The chief leaders of the Milesians were Heber, Heremon, and Ir, sons of Milesius, and Lugad, son of their uncle, Ith; and from these all the principal old Irish families claim descent. In process of time Ireland was divided into the five petty kingdoms of Meath, Ulster, Connaught, Leinster, and Munster; the king of Meath being called Ardrigh, or chief king of all Ireland. It is also to be observed that the ancient Irish adopted the patriarchal or clan system of society so that the head of every sept and family enjoyed a kind of regal independence.

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5. In the year 432, St. Patrick came to Ireland, having previously obtained the approbation of the Pope, St. Celestine; and his mission was the most successful that we read of in the whole history of the Christian Church. The Irish readily and cordially embraced Christianity; no sanguinary persecution was raised against the young church as in other countries; and from that day to the present, the people have clung to the faith which they received from St. Patrick with unexampled fidelity. The great Apostle having built churches and consecrated bishops in every part of Ireland, died at Saul, in the county of Down, in the year 493, or, as some think, in the year 465.

6. The best evidence which we possess of the very early civilization of Ireland, is to be found in the fact, that immediately after its conversion to Christianity, great monastic schools sprung up in several parts of the country—schools so extensive that some of them were attended by thousands of students, and so celebrated, that great numbers of the youth of Britain and the Continent came to them for education; while, at the same time, a vast number of holy and learned Irish monks migrated as missionaries to Britain, Gaul, and Germany, and even into Italy, preaching and founding monasteries, many of which were famous for centuries, and some even to our own times. Without previous advances in civilization, all this could not have happened so speedily.

It is besides to be observed, that St. Patrick found written laws in Ireland, and that he was associated with a number of the native princes and learned men in compiling the famous code of laws called the Senchus Mor, a volume of which was published by the government a few years since.

7. In the year 790 the Danes and other Northmen began to make descents upon the coast of Ireland; and for more than 200 years the country was infested by the inroads of those fierce pagan plunderers, until they were finally overthrown in the great battle of

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Clontarf, on Good Friday, April 23rd, 1014 A.C. About 7,000 of the Irish fell in that memorable conflict, including the Irish king, Brian Borumha, with his eldest son, Murrough, and his grandson, but the Danish loss amounted to 13,000. The Danes still continued to occupy the maritime cities of Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, and Limerick, which they may be said to have founded; but in the incessant wars which had prevailed between them and the Irish, the whole country had been ravaged, society had become disorganized, and the ancient seats of learning wholly destroyed.

8. From this state of things the country was beginning to recover at the fatal epoch of the English invasion. Henry II., King of England, had for some time entertained a project of invading Ireland, and seized an opportunity to carry his plan into execution. This opportunity was afforded by Dermot Mac Murrough, King of Leinster, who, having been driven from his territory for his crimes, and, among the rest, for having carried off the wife of O'Rourke, Prince of Breffney, fled to England, and following Henry II. into France, applied to him for aid. This was readily afforded by the English monarch, and accordingly a host of Anglo-Norman adventurers, under Earl Strongbow, FitzStephen, and others, came to Ireland in 1169, and restored his kingdom to Dermot. In 1171 Henry II. himself landed in Ireland, with an imposing army, and, without fighting, received the homage of a great many Irish kings and chiefs, who conceived that they were only performing an act of vassalage, such as was at that period common in Europe—all the lesser princes doing homage as vassals to some superior monarch.

9. The Irish chieftains were, however, soon undeceived. The Anglo-Norman barons penetrated into almost every part of the country, with their steel-clad knights and men-at-arms, and stripped the native princes of their possessions. A horrible war was thus commenced in every quarter throughout the land, and



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lasted for centuries; the Irish returning, over more, after short intervals, to the struggle, and thus being, in reality, indomitable; although they were prevented by their clan system, which seemed part of their nature, from uniting against the common foe. In process of time, some of the great Anglo-Norman families —the principal being the Burkes and FitzGeralds— adopted the Irish language and costume, identified themselves with the natives, and became, as the saying was, "more Irish than the Irish themselves;" and the authority of the English government was limited to a small tract called the Pale, comprised chiefly in the present counties of Dublin and Louth, with part of Meath. Beyond these narrow bounds English law did not prevail, and no officer of the English crown dare appear, unless supported by a competent army.

10. In 1315 Edward Bruce, brother of Robert Bruce, King of Scotland, was invited by the Ulster chiefs, and crowned king of Ireland at Dundalk; but it happened to be a period of horrible famine and pestilence, and Bruce being killed in battle, in 1318, the effort of the Irish failed. In 1366 the infamous statute passed in a parliament held by the Duke of Clarence, at Kilkenny, made it high treason for any of English descent to intermarry with the Irish, to entrust their children to the Irish for nursing, or to adopt the Irish language or customs, etc.; but the iniquitous law was inoperative. In 1465, a parliament held in Trim enacted that the English of the Pale might, without trial, kill any person whom they found wearing Irish apparel, under the pretence that they suspected such person to be a thief or robber; and in 1494, the law called Poyning's Act was passed in Drogheda, restricting legislation in the Irish parliament to measures that had been first approved of by the council in England.

11. In 1542 Henry VIII. assumed the title of King of Ireland, the English kings having been previously styled lords of Ireland. He suppressed the monas-

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teries, and by measures of excessive severity extended very considerably the English sway in Ireland so that the Irish chiefs were now reduced to a state of utter ruin, and several of them were induced to accept English titles. A parliament was held in Dublin in 1541, when the Lord Chancellor's speech was interpreted in Irish by the Earl of Ormond, some of the great Anglo-Norman earls being as ignorant of English as the Irish chiefs who were also summoned to attend.

12. It was not until the reign of Elizabeth that Ireland reached the climax of her sufferings. A new element of strife was then introduced,—religious persecution being superadded to the spirit of inveterate hostility which the English government had ever hitherto exhibited towards Ireland; and the Anglo-Irish, or descendants of the old English settlers, who remained faithful to their religion, were as much persecuted as the old Irish themselves. Still, all the efforts to force Protestantism on the people were in vain, and Long, the English Archbishop of Armagh, complained, towards the close of Elizabeth's reign, that there were not forty natives of Ireland in the whole land who had adopted the new doctrines. What, then, is to be thought of those who impudently assert, at the present day, that the privileges and property of the Ancient Church of Ireland were transferred to the Protestant Establishment, in right of the Church and people of Ireland having embraced Protestantism in the reign of Queen Elizabeth?

13. Ireland was a scene of civil war throughout the whole long reign of Elizabeth. First, Shane O'Neill raised the Irish standard in Ulster, but he was slain, in 1567. The great Munster rebellion broke out soon after, with the FitzGeralds of Desmond as leaders, ending with the murder of the Earl of Desmond, in 1583; and, finally, the most serious war of all commenced in Ulster, under Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, and Red Hugh O'Donnell, Earl of Tyrconnel, the

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Irish being finally crushed in the battle of Kinsale, in 1601. After this defeat O'Donnell repaired to Spain, where he died, and Hugh O'Neill submitted to Mountjoy, the viceroy, in 1603.

14. In 1607, four years after the accession of James I., Hugh O'Neill and Rory O'Donnell—the latter being the brother of Red Hugh, and his successor as Earl of Tyrconnel—harassed by threats of further persecution, fled privately to Rome. This event is known in Irish history as the "Flight of the Earls," and with it terminated the power of the native princes in Ireland. Immediately after, six counties of Ulster were confiscated and divided among English and Scottish settlers; this wholesale plunder of a province being known in history as the "plantation or settlement of Ulster."

15. In 1641 commenced the civil war, generally called "the great Irish rebellion." It was contemporary with the great civil war of England; and as the Irish took the side of King Charles I. against the Parliament, they were, strictly speaking, the loyalists in the struggle. The Catholics of Ireland, of English and Irish origin, formed a league known as the "Confederation of Kilkenny," and the Pope sent a nuncio to assist in the proceedings of the Confederates. The principal Irish general in this war was Owen Roe O'Neill; but the efforts of the Irish were constantly foiled by the hostility of the Earl of Ormond, who acted nominally for the king, but who showed an inveterate animosity to the Catholics. Oliver Cromwell, about six months after beheading the king, landed at Dublin, in August, 1649, with a well-appointed army of "Roundheads," and marching against Drogheda, which he took after a short siege, was resolved to strike terror into the whole nation. He therefore caused the great bulk of the citizens of Drogheda—men, women, and children, with the entire garrison of 3,000 men—to be butchered in cold blood,—this horrible carnage of unresisting people lasting for five days! This barbarity was reneated, on a smaller scale, at

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Wexford; and, in general, Cromwell announced that he would give no quarter wherever he met with resistance. The last important event in the war was the siege of Limerick, by General Ireton, in October, 1651.

16. In 1689 Ireland became the theatre of the war between the dethroned king, James II., and his son-in-law, William III.—the Irish Catholics adhering with fatal fidelity to the fortunes of the fallen monarch. The principal events of this war were the siege of Derry, in 1689; the battle of the Boyne, July 1st, 1690; the unsuccessful siege of Limerick by William, in the following month; the capture of Athlone by Ginkell, in 1691, followed by the battle of Aughrim, and the second siege and capitulation of Limerick. The famous Treaty of Limerick, signed on this occasion, October 3rd, 1691, was shamefully violated by the English officials about two months after it was made, and four years later was declared by parliament to be null and void! In the meantime the gallant defenders of Limerick, who had passed over into France, formed the famous Irish Brigade; while at home, the Irish Catholics, writhing under the penal laws, sank into a most abject and deplorable state of helplessness and apathy.

17. In 1782 the country was restored to vitality by the patriotic movement of the Volunteers, under whose influence the legislative independence of Ireland was decreed; but the abortive efforts made by the United Irishmen, in 1798, to throw off the English yoke, left the country once more plunged in ruin. It is generally admitted that this rebellion was promoted by the English minister for the purpose of carrying the fatal measure of the Union, to which he waded, by the aid of fraud, bribery, and corruption, and through a sea of Irish blood. This measure, which robbed Ireland of her parliament, of her position as a kingdom, of her nobility and gentry, and, as a consequence, of her commerce and prosperity, came into force on the 1st of January, 1801.

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18. The career of Daniel O'Connell, and his efforts to obtain Catholic Emancipation and Repeal of the Union, to abolish old party feuds, and to raise the position of the Irish people as a nation, form the great features of the period which has elapsed from the Union to the present time. He compelled the English government to grant Emancipation in 1829; in 1840 he succeeded in obtaining corporate reform; and although his agitation for Repeal of the Union was so utterly fruitless, as to make even his friends doubt his sincerity, still he made the voice of Ireland, demanding justice, at least respected, and taught the Irish people to respect themselves as a nation. This great man—perhaps the greatest man that Ireland ever produced—died broken-hearted at Genoa, on his way to Rome, May 5th, 1847, bequeathing his heart to Rome and his body to his native land.

19. The fearful famine caused by the potato blight, which commenced in 1845, and destroyed the people's food for a succession of years—the lamentable mortality which resulted from it—the unprecedented extent of emigration—have combined in depopulating the country, and throwing additional gloom over its prospects; while, on the other hand, the action of the Incumbered Estates Court, transferring the land to better hands, from many of the representatives of those who obtained it by the old Cromwellian and Williamite confiscations; and the admission by the British House of Commons, in 1868, of the principle that the Irish Church Establishment is unjust, and must be abolished, have given hopes of better days.

20. The misgovernment of Ireland for so many ages—the atrocious cruelties resorted to in past times to enforce her submission—the ever-prevailing principle of ruling Ireland only for the advantage of England—the inveterate opposition, even in our own times, to anything in the shape of "justice to Ireland"—and the insults perpetually heaped upon the country and its people by the organs of English

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opinion, have had the effect of engendering in the breasts of Irishmen an undying hostility to England, and of producing a succession of revolutionary efforts, of which it is impossible to foresee the end. Such was the Young Ireland movement in 1848, headed by Smith O'Brien, John Mitchel, T. F. Meagher, etc.; and such has been the still more formidable Fenian organization, which commenced about the year 1860, and assumed its most threatening aspect in 1867. Fenianism has been organized in America, where the Irish are more numerous than in their native country, and where they still retain a sense of the wrongs and grievances of Ireland; and being thus far beyond the jurisdiction of England, it cannot be crushed out by English power. Under its influence, English statesmen have been taught the necessity of rectifying such grievances as the Irish Church Establishment, and the insecure tenure of land.

QUESTIONS TO CHAPTER V.

1. Do we possess records of very early antiquity in Ireland? What may be said of them?
2. Who were the Firbolgs? And the Fomorians? And the Tuatha de Danann? And the Milesians?
3. What were the Milesians called by the Romans? Who were the Gael? What is the Irish language called? What is the Irish name of Ireland?
4. Who were the leaders of the Milesians? How was Ireland divided? What was their system of society?
5. When did St. Patrick come to Ireland? How did the Irish receive Christianity? How have they adhered to their faith? Where and about what time did St. Patrick die?
6. What may be mentioned as evidences of the early civilization of Ireland? What about the Irish schools and missionaries? What was the Senchus Mor?
7. When did the Danes begin to invade Ireland? How long did they continue to infest the country? When were they finally defeated? Mention some particulars of the battle. What towns did the Danes continue to occupy?

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8. How was the English invasion of Ireland brought about? When did it take place?
9. What followed on the English invasion? Did any of the English or Anglo-Normans adopt the Irish language and manners, etc.? What was the English Pale?
10. Who was Edward Bruce? Mention the chief events about him. What was the Statute of Kilkenny, and when was it passed? And what law was passed at Trim? What was Poyning's Act?
11. What title did Henry VIII. assume with respect to Ireland? How were the previous English kings styled in Ireland? What is said of the Irish Parliament held in 1541?
12. What new element of strife arose in the reign of Elizabeth? How did the Protestant Reformation succeed in Ireland?
13. What civil wars raged in Ireland during Elizabeth's reign?
14. What is called the "Flight of the Earls"? And what was the settlement of Ulster?
15. What civil war broke out in 1641? What was the Confederation of Kilkenny? Who was Owen Roe O'Neill? What is remarkable of the siege of Drogheda?
16. What war commenced in 1689? Mention the principal events of the Williamite war. What was the Treaty of Limerick, and what followed?
17. Who were the Volunteers? And the United Irishmen? What are the dates of 1782 and 1798 remarkable for? What was the Union—and its effects?
18. What were the efforts of Daniel O'Connell? What did he effect? When and where did he die?
19. What is said of the Irish famine? And of emigration? What remarkable changes have taken place of late?
20. What movements against English rule in Ireland have lately taken place? And what produced them?

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# CHAPTER VI.

## SPAIN.

### *From the Fifth Century* A.C., *to* 1868 A.C.

1. IBERIA, or SPAIN, long a province of the Roman Empire, became, in common with the other provinces, the prey of the northern barbarians early in the fifth century. At that period the Suevi, Vandals, and Alains took possession of the country. They were shortly after subdued by the Visigoths, who erected a monarchy, which existed until 712 A.C.

2. At the last-mentioned period the kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain was overthrown by the Saracens, who, having extended their conquests along the north of Africa, invaded Spain from Mauritania, whence they were styled Moors. They gradually overran the greater portion of the country, and the power of the Visigoths became confined to the mountains of Asturia, whither they had retired in large numbers.

3. In 755 A.C., the Moors established an independent caliphate at Cordova. This sovereignty continued for nearly 300 years, after which time the dominions of the Moors became divided into a number of distinct sovereignties, the most important of which were the caliphate of Cordova, and, towards the close of their dominion in Spain, the caliphate of Granada.

4. The history of Spain during several centuries after the conquest by the Moors, presents a constant scene of warfare between the Christians and Moors; and gradually the former, from the mountains of Asturia, recovered their sway over other parts of the country. Several Christian kingdoms were at different times erected, the most celebrated of which were those of Castile and Leon, Arragon and Navarre. It is worthy of remark, that the protracted wars between

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the Christians and Moors kept up a spirit of chivalry and heroism in Spain for many ages.

5. In 1479 A.C. Ferdinand II., surnamed the Catholic, who, in 1469, had married Isabella, Queen of Castile and Leon, succeeded to the throne of Arragon, and thus these two kingdoms became united. The Moors had lost most of their power in Spain, and Granada was the only possession they had at this period. This, after a long and desperate struggle, was also wrested from them by Ferdinand and Isabella, in 1492 A.C. Subsequently, in 1515, Ferdinand overthrew the kingdom of Navarre, and Spain, for the first time, became subject to one crown.

6. In the memorable year 1492, at the moment that Ferdinand was triumphing over the Moors in their last stronghold, Christopher Columbus, under the patronage of Isabella, startled the world by the discovery of America—an event which will be noticed hereafter.

7. The discovery of America elevated Spain to a position of great power and wealth, and that kingdom, in consequence, during the long reigns of Charles I., who was also Charles V. of Germany, and his son, Philip II., took a leading part in the affairs of the world. The contests of Charles, as emperor, we shall refer to elsewhere, and we have mentioned the marriage of Philip with Mary of England, and his abortive attempt to invade England during the reign of Elizabeth. In 1581 the Netherlands revolted from the authority of Philip, and formed the republic of the United Provinces, or Holland.

8. But few events of general interest occurred during the reigns of succeeding monarchs, until that of Ferdinand VII., who, upon the abdication of his father, Charles IV., in 1808, succeeded to the throne. He was soon after compelled to resign his crown and kingdom into the hands of Napoleon, who, as we have seen, placed his brother Joseph on the throne, an act which produced the Peninsular War. That celebrated

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war resulted in the expulsion of the French, in 1813. In 1814, Ferdinand VII. was restored to the throne and marked his restoration by tyrannical and impolitic measures. Disregarding his oath, he annulled the constitution which the Cortes, the representatives of the nation, had formed during the usurpation of Bonaparte, when, in point of fact, the national throne was vacated; and although he owed his restoration to the Cortes, he perfidiously imprisoned, exiled, or put to death the chief leaders of that patriotic body. But, in 1820, the army, supported by the people, compelled Ferdinand to accept the constitution.

9. In 1823 the revolution was put down with the aid of France, and the king resumed despotic power. Ferdinand having shortly before abolished the Salic law, which prevented women from reigning, died in 1833, and was succeeded by his infant daughter, Isabella II., under the regency of her mother, Queen Christina; but the late king's brother, Don Carlos, claimed the throne, and a sanguinary struggle, known as the Carlist War, ensued, and lasted for seven years. The Carlists having been finally subdued, partly by the assistance of an Anglo-Irish legion, commanded by the Irish general, De Lacy Evans, in 1840, General Espartero was made regent in place of Christina, who was sent out of Spain. The government of the new regent abolished monasteries and confiscated the church property; but after a few years Espartero also was humbled and driven from Spain. That unhappy country has been convulsed by a succession of insurrections for many years, but it has nevertheless made considerable progress in its political and material interests, and its great natural resources have been much developed by a system of railways. The queen, who was married in 1846, cannot be considered very secure on her throne.

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QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VI.

1. What is said of Iberia, or Spain, in the fifth century?
2. What happened in 712 A.C.? What became of the Visigoths?
3. What happened in 755 A.C., and afterwards?
4. What is said of the history of Spain during several centuries after? What Christian kingdoms were erected during this warfare? To what spirit did this warfare give rise?
5. What happened in 1479 A.C.? What is said of the power of the Moors in Spain at this period? What was the fate of Granada? What happened subsequently?
6. What great event took place in 1492?
7. What was the effect on Spain of the discovery of America? What happened in 1581?
8. What is said of the succeeding reigns, to the time of Ferdinand VII.? What then occurred, and what was the consequence? What happened in 1814? What is said of Ferdinand on his restoration? What happened in 1820?
9. Who succeeded to Ferdinand VII.? What war ensued? Who became regent at the close of the war? What has been the state of Spain for a long period? Has Spain made any progress of late?

## CHAPTER VII.

### PORTUGAL.

1. PORTUGAL, anciently called Lusitania, was conquered by the Romans about 200 years before Christ. On the decline of the empire, it, like Spain, was invaded, and subdued successively by the Alains, the Suevi, and the Visigoths, during the fifth and sixth centuries after Christ. The Visigoths, who took full possession of the country in 585 A.C., held it till after the battle of Xeres, in 712 A.C., when both Portugal and Spain, for the most part, passed under the dominion of the Saracens or Moors.

2. After this period, Portugal became the scene of long-continued contests between the Moors and the

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Christian kings of Spain, until the reign of Alphonso King of Castile, who, having conquered the northern provinces, rewarded the services of his grandson, Henry of Burgundy, by bestowing them upon him, with the title of count, 1094 A.C. From the city of Oporto, which is situated in that part of Portugal, and which was formerly called Portus Calle, the whole country takes its name. Count Henry was succeeded by his son, Alphonso, who completely defeated the Moors at Ourique, threw off the Castilian yoke, and assumed the title of king. 1139 A.C.

3. From this period the contest with the Moors and with the Castilians continued with but little intermission, to the reign of John I., surnamed the Great, who became king in 1385 A.C. In addition to his signal victories over the Castilians, and his expeditions against the Moors, his reign was signalized by great maritime discoveries, and the impulse and encouragement given to commerce and navigation.

4. The reign of John II., which lasted from the year 1481 to 1495, and that of Emmanuel, from 1495 to 1521, were also signalized by magnificent discoveries made under the auspices of the Portuguese crown. In 1486, the Cape of Good Hope was discovered by Dias; in 1492, the same year in which Columbus discovered America, Congou, in Africa, was discovered by the Portuguese; in 1497, the Cape of Good Hope was doubled by Vasco de Gama, who by this means reached the East Indies—a discovery which gave to Portugal the important trade of those regions, which had, previous to that time, been monopolized by Venice, through the Red Sea and Egypt; in 1500, Caprel discovered Brazil in South America, and in 1510, Siguira discovered the island of Sumatra. These great enterprises elevated Portugal to a most imposing and brilliant position, which she maintained with great splendour to 1580, when Philip II. of Spain took possession of the kingdom, and united it to his own.

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5. Between this period and 1640, during which Portugal was governed by Spanish kings, the kingdom rapidly declined, and the Dutch, or Hollanders, who, having thrown off the Spanish yoke under Philip II., had taken a most prominent position in commerce and maritime adventure, wrested from the Portuguese, in 1604, the greater part of their splendid dominions in the East and West Indies and in Africa.

6. In 1640, the Spaniards were expelled by the Portuguese, and the national line of kings was restored in the person of John, Duke of Braganza, whose family still retains the throne. From this time to the year 1807, the history of Portugal, with the exception of her struggles with the Dutch to regain her lost possessions, and her wars with Spain and France, presents but little of general interest. In 1807, Portugal being invaded by the French troops sent there by Napoleon, the royal family removed to Brazil, where they remained until 1820, when they returned to Lisbon, with the exception of Don Pedro, the king's eldest son, who was left regent. In 1823, a revolution having occurred in Brazil, that country was declared an empire, independent of the Portuguese crown, and Don Pedro assumed the title of emperor. In 1826, Donna Maria da Gloria, daughter of Don Pedro, the Brazilian emperor, was proclaimed Queen of Portugal, under the regency of her aunt, Isabella; but Don Miguel, a younger brother of Pedro, usurped the throne. The usurper, however, was soon after dethroned, and the direct line restored.

7. For a long succession of years, Portugal continued to be convulsed by almost constant revolutions. In 1853 the queen died, and was succeeded by her son, Pedro V., under the regency of his father, Ferdinand of Saxe Coburg Gotha; and the young king dying in 1861, was succeeded by his brother, Louis I., also under his father's regency. In 1862, Louis married Pia, the youngest daughter of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy. In 1864, the hereditary peerage was abolished, and

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the constitution of Portugal is, on the whole, extremely democratic, so much so, that it has been a favourite design with the revolutionary party in Spain, for many years past, to unite the two countries, by placing Spain under the Portuguese government.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VII.

1. What is said of the early history of Portugal?
2. What is said of Portugal after the conquest by the Saracens?
3. What is said of Portugal from 1139 A.C.? What signalized the reign of John I.?
4. What signalized the reign of John II. and Emmanuel? Mention the Portuguese discoveries. What was the effect of those discoveries?
5. What happened between 1580 and 1640?
6. What happened in 1640? What is said of the history of Portugal after that period? What occurred in 1807? What occurred in 1820? In 1823? In 1826?
7. For what has Portugal been remarkable in late years? What is the character of its constitution? What plan have the revolutionary party in Spain entertained?

## CHAPTER VIII.

### ITALY.

1. We have seen that the downfall of the Western Empire of the Romans was completed in 476 A.C., when Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, overthrew the Emperor Romulus Augustulus, and assumed the title of King of Italy. In 493 A.C., Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths, overthrew Odoacer, and took possession of the Herulian kingdom in Italy. The period between 535 and 553 A.C., was signalized by the operations of the Emperor of the East, Justinian I., to regain Italy. In these operations, conducted by the celebrated gene-

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rals Belisarius and Narses, he was completely successful. Dying shortly after, however, Justinian was succeeded by the weak emperor, Justin II., during whose reign, in 568 A.C., Alboin, the fierce King of the Lombards, poured his barbarous forces into the country, and completely subdued the whole, except Ravenna and Rome, which he was induced to leave unmolested, and assumed the title of King of Italy.

2. From 568 to 774 A.C., the Lombard kings ruled in Italy. This period is marked by strife and bloodshed. At length Astolphus, the last king but one, having taken possession of Ravenna, and threatened to carry his arms into Rome, the aid of France was invoked by Pope Stephen II. Pepin le Bref, King of France, extended the required aid, invaded Italy, defeated the Lombards, and bestowed upon the Pope and his successors in the chair of St. Peter the provinces he conquered, 755 A.C., thus conferring on the head of the Christian Church the dignity of a temporal sovereign. The provinces thus bestowed were styled the Ecclesiastical States, and were held and governed by the Popes with but little interruption until 1859.

3. The Lombard kingdom in Italy was brought to a conclusion in 774 A.C., when Charlemagne, King of France, having been appealed to by Pope Adrian I. for aid, completely overthrew Desiderius, the last king of the Lombards, and wrested from him the remnant of his dominions, which afterwards formed part of the new Empire of the West.

4. The history of Italy, for a long time after this period, is chiefly distinguished for the rise of the Italian republics—the sanguinary feuds between the Guelphs and Ghibellines—the great and salutary influence exercised by the Popes over the affairs of Europe—and the illustrious position which the cities of Italy attained, and which they still hold, in art, science, and literature.

5. The period of the Italian republics—Venice, Pisa,

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Genoa, and Florence—forms a glorious but saddening portion of the history of Italy; glorious, on account of their noble enterprises, extensive commerce, and internal magnificence—saddening, in the fact that they marred their own splendour, and brought ruin upon themselves, by their ill-fated divisions and wars with each other. The contests of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, which distracted all Italy and Germany for three centuries, grew out of the great questions of investiture, and of the temporal possessions of the Popes, which produced the difficulties between the Popes and the German Emperors, during the reigns of the Franconian and Suabian lines of emperors.

6. Prior to the period of the French Revolution, Italy was divided into many small states, some of which were monarchies, others duchies, and others republics. After the downfall of Napoleon and the restoration of the Ecclesiastical States to the Pope, several modifications took place; and the principal states of Italy then were Lombardy and Venice, belonging to Austria; the kingdom of Naples and Sicily: the Ecclesiastical States; the duchies of Modena, Parma, Placentia, and Lucca; the grand duchy of Tuscany, and the kingdom of Sardinia. The little republic of San Marino, under the protection of the Pope, also maintained its independence, which it enjoyed for 1300 years.

7. The pontificate of Pius IX., which began in 1846, will form a memorable epoch in the history of Papal Rome. The splendid talents and noble character of this truly great man, could not fail to command the admiration and respect of all capable of appreciating them; while the readiness with which he yielded to the wishes of his people, rendered him for a time the idol of popular adoration, and Jew and infidel grew eloquent in praise of "Pio Nono," who had cancelled all political offences by an amnesty, and given to the Romans a constitution by which they should be governed in accordance with the spirit of the age. But



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the unstable multitude, listening to the counsels of designing men, soon became dissatisfied with the government of the liberal Pontiff; and, presuming on the kindness of his nature, which they took for weakness, endeavoured to force him into measures which, as head of the Church, and as temporal sovereign of the Ecclesiastical States, he could not sanction. For the sake of peace he seemed at first disposed to gratify them, and, contrary to his own judgment, consented to the expulsion of the Jesuits, against whom the popular leaders adroitly directed the fury of their instruments. Instead, however, of being won to moderation by concessions, the opposers of the Papal authority grew every day more unreasonable in their demands, and, when these were resisted, proceeded to such acts of violence as to oblige the Pope, for the preservation of his liberty, and perhaps his life, to fly from Rome. He found refuge in Gaeta, within the kingdom of Naples, where he remained about a year and a half, when, by the aid of the French, he was enabled to return to the Eternal City. 1850 A.C.

8. An attempt, made in 1849, to drive the Austrians from Lombardy was unsuccessful—the Sardinians being shamefully routed in the battle of Novara; but, in 1859, the Sardinians obtained the aid of France, anxious for the humiliation of Austria; and the Austrians being defeated by French arms in the battles of Montebello, Magenta, Malegnano, and Solferino, were compelled to evacuate Lombardy, which was then annexed to Sardinia, the Austrian power in Italy being confined to Venetia. While this war was raging in the northern part of Italy, revolutions broke out in the smaller states of that country; and Tuscany, Parma, and Modena were annexed to Sardinia—the greater part of the Pontifical States adopting also the same course. In 1860 the revolution extended into Naples, and the reigning family being expelled, partly by the efforts of Garibaldi—a singular military enthusiast—and partly by the aid of a Sardinian army, which also

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invaded the Roman States, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies was united to Sardinia, and the new kingdom of Italy formed.

9. The efforts of the Garibaldians were now directed to the obtaining of Rome for the capital; but being compelled by France to relinquish their attempts for this purpose, the seat of government was transferred, in 1865, from Turin to Florence. In 1866, Italy became the ally of Prussia in her war against Austria; and although the Italians were defeated by the Austrians both on land and sea, still the latter, being worsted by the Prussians at the battle of Sadowa, were compelled by the terms of peace to surrender Venetia to Italy. Thus all Italy became united in one kingdom, with the exception of the small territory still left to the Pope; and the French army having evacuated Rome in 1866, a movement was immediately made by the Garibaldians, with the covert support of the Italian government, to deprive the Pope of this last shred of his temporal dominion. The French emperor was therefore obliged to send back a small force to Rome; and the Pontifical army, aided by these French troops, defeated the Garibaldians, with terrible slaughter, at the battle of Mentana, in 1867, and restored peace to Rome. The eighteenth centenary of the martyrdom of St. Peter, which was celebrated at Rome in June, 1866, together with the ceremony of the canonization of several saints, was one of the most memorable events in the modern history of the Eternal City; and of the kingdom of Italy it can only be said, that for some years past its affairs have been in a most deplorable state, from national insolvency and popular discontent.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VIII.

1. When did the kingdom of Italy commence? What happened in 493 A.C.? What occurred between 535 and 553 A.C.? What happened during the reign of the Emperor Justin II.?

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2. What is said of the period between 568 and 774 A.C.? What at length happened?
3. What terminated the Lombard kingdom in Italy?
4. What distinguished the history of Italy after this period?
5. What is said of the period of the Italian republics, and of the feuds between the Guelphs and Ghibellines?
6. What is said of Italy prior to the French Revolution, and since?
7. What is said of the pontificate of Pius IX.?
8. What attempt did the Sardinians make in 1849, and how did they succeed? What aid did they obtain in 1859, and what was its effect? What great battles were fought in that war? What revolutions took place at the same time in other parts of Italy? When did the revolution extend to Naples? Who was Garibaldi? When was the new kingdom of Italy formed?
9. What attempts were made against Rome? What is now the capital of Italy? What was the result to Italy of the Prussian war? Relate the subsequents events.

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## CHAPTER IX.

### AUSTRIA, OR SOUTH GERMANY.

*From the Commencement of the Empire, under Charlemagne,* 800 A.C., *to* 1868 A.C.

1. GERMANY, in the time of the first Roman emperors, was inhabited by many brave, hardy, and uncivilized nations, which the Romans could never entirely subdue, and several of which afterwards, on the decline of the Western Empire, made incursions into the Roman provinces. But the history of Germany properly commences with the establishment of the New Empire of the West by Charlemagne. That great monarch, who, as we have seen, succeeded his father, Pepin le Bref, on the throne of France, in 768 A.C., by rapid and splendid successes, brought under the crown

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of France the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, a part of Italy, and also of Spain. These vast dominions were styled the New Empire of the West; and Charlemagne was crowned emperor at Rome by the Pope, 800 A.C. In 843, the Empire was divided into three monarchies—France, Germany, and Italy; and in 887, the imperial dignity was transferred to Germany, which has since been distinguished in European history as the Empire.

2. There were nine emperors of the House of Charlemagne, between 800 and 912; four of the House of Saxony, between 919 and 1024; four of the House of Franconia, between 1024 and 1125; six of the House of Suabia, between 1139 and 1269. At the last-mentioned period the House of Hapsburg, or Ancient Austria, ascended the throne, in the person of Rodolph I., surnamed the Merciful. All the succeeding emperors, twenty-seven in number, who reigned in Germany up to the dissolution of the Empire by Napoleon, in 1806, descended from the last-mentioned house, with the exception of Adolphus of Nassau, who succeeded Rodolph I., in 1291 A.C.

3. During the reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V., of the Franconian line, between 1056 and 1155, serious quarrels constantly existed between the popes and the emperors, growing out of the question of investiture, the emperors claiming the right to nominate candidates for vacant bishoprics, and to put elected bishops in possession of their benefices. This right was denied by Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), its exercise being considered by him an encroachment on the rights of the Church. During the reigns of most of the emperors of the Suabian line, there were also contests and disagreements with the Popes, arising out of the claim asserted by the latter to hold their possessions in Italy independent of the emperors.

4. In the reign of Albert I., the second emperor of the House of Hapsburg, the Swiss rebelled; and afterwards, under the patriotic guidance of William Tell,

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threw off the German yoke, and achieved their independence at the pass of Morgarten. 1315 A.C.

5. But little of general interest appears between this period and that of Charles V., also King of Spain, who succeeded his grandfather, Maximilian I., in 1519. We have noticed the celebrated contest which this sovereign maintained against Francis I. of France, who also aspired to the imperial throne. Charles V. was successful in the contest, and afterwards pursued a splendid career of victory. During his reign, the Reformation in Germany made rapid progress. In 1555, Charles resigned the Netherlands to his son Philip; the next year he abdicated the throne of Spain; and eight months after, to the amazement of all Europe, he renounced the Empire in favour of his brother Ferdinand, having reigned as emperor thirty-seven years. After his resignation Charles retired to the monastery of St. Just, in Spain, where, after two years spent in peaceful and pious pursuits, he died. 1558 A.C.

6. During the reigns of Ferdinand II. and Ferdinand III., the fourth and fifth emperors after Charles V., the Empire was convulsed by the celebrated Thirty Years' War, growing out of the religious dissensions produced by the Reformation. It was terminated by the peace of Westphalia, in 1649, by which the three religions—Catholic, Lutheran, and Calvinistic—were admitted to the unrestrained enjoyment of their several tenets.

7. The next war which distracted the Empire was that of the Austrian succession, already noticed in the history of France and England. The male branch of the House of Hapsburg having become extinct on the death of Charles VI., in 1740, his daughter, Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary, claimed the succession. She was opposed by Charles, Elector of Bavaria, who also claimed the coveted throne, and who, aided by Louis XV. of France, succeeded in being elected emperor, with the title of Charles VII. Maria

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Theresa, however, prosecuted her claim with great energy, and finally, being assisted by England, was successful, her right being recognized by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

8. The reign of Francis II., who ascended the imperial throne in 1794, was signalized by the wars of the French Revolution, the chief theatre of which was Germany. We have already detailed these momentous events in the history of France. In 1806, Francis resigned the title of Emperor of Germany, and assumed the title of Emperor of Austria. In 1815, a new union of the German states was adopted by the congress of Vienna, called the Germanic Confederation, the affairs of which were regulated by a Diet, over which Austria presided. Francis was succeeded, in 1835, by Ferdinand, who abdicated, in 1848, in favour of his nephew.

9. The political convulsions that, in 1848 and 1849, shook Europe to its centre, threatened at one time a violent dismemberment of this great empire. But, though right might have been on the side of Hungary and the revolted provinces, might was certainly on that of Austria; and her success in dealing with revolutions emboldened the emperor, Francis Joseph I., in 1851, to declare himself an absolute sovereign.

10. In 1859, the Emperor Napoleon III. made war on Austria in her Italian provinces, and drove her out of Lombardy; the Austrians, as mentioned under the head of Italy, retaining Venetia, in which they were protected by the strong fortresses of Verona, Mantua, &c., known as the Quadrilateral; and as it generally happened that when Austria was unfortunate abroad, her government became more liberal at home, the privileges of the Reichsrath, or parliament, were considerably extended in the following year, and a free constitution established.

11. In 1864, Austria joined Prussia in the war against Denmark, nominally to execute a decree of the German Diet, for the liberation of Sleswick-Hols-

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tein; but the two great powers soon quarrelled about the division of the spoils; and, at the convention held at Gastein, in 1865, it was settled that Austria should have Holstein, and Prussia Sleswick, and public opinion on the subject was wholly disregarded.

12. It was well known for many years that the great question of the superiority of Austria or Prussia in the affairs of Germany, was one day or other to be decided by war; but the matter was very unexpectedly brought to an issue in 1866. The Prussian minister, Count Bismarck, a man of extraordinary energy and ability, feeling that he was prepared for the struggle, easily found a cause of quarrel, and war was proclaimed against Austria. So rapid were the movements on the part of the Prussians, that although war was only proclaimed on the 17th of June, and the first hostilities took place on the following day, the contest was finally decided by the great Prussian victory of Sadowa, in Bohemia, gained on the 3rd of July. In this great battle the Prussians had 220,000 men and the Austrians about 190,000; but the Prussians were chiefly indebted for the victory to the newly-invented needle-gun, with which they were armed. This is sometimes called the Seven Days' War; and, indeed, all the operations were conducted within a space of about fifteen days. By it Austria lost her last Italian province of Venetia, a great deal of her German territory, nearly all her German influence, and was, in fact, reduced almost to the state of a second-rate power in Europe. Since that time she has been occupied solely with her internal affairs, and the liberal party have acquired great power; and regardless altogether of the interests of religion, have set aside the Concordat which had been entered into with the Pope, in 1855.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IX.

1. What is said of Germany in the time of the Roman emperors? When does German history properly

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commence? What was the commencement of the Empire? What happened in the years 843 and 887?

2. What were the different houses that reigned in Germany down to 1269? What happened at that period, and what is said of the subsequent emperors?
3. What occurred during the reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V.? What occurred under the Suabian line of emperors?
4. What happened in the reign of Albert I.?
5. What occurred during the reign of Charles V.? How did Charles terminate his reign?
6. What occurred during the reigns of Ferdinand II. and Ferdinand III.? How did the war terminate?
7. What was the next war? What produced it? How did it end?
8. What occurred in the reign of Francis II.? What took place in 1806 and 1815?
9. With what was the Austrian Empire at one time threatened? What did the emperor declare himself in 1851?
10. What war was waged against Austria in 1859, and what was its result? What followed to the constitution of Austria?
11. Into what war did Austria enter in 1864? What was done in the convention of Gastein?
12. What was the great question settled in 1866? What Prussian minister brought it to an issue? What was this war remarkable for? What great battle did the Austrians lose? What were the numbers of the armies on both sides? To what new invention did the Prussians chiefly owe their victory? What is this war sometimes called? What were its consequences to Austria? What has the liberal party in Austria done since that war?

## CHAPTER X.

### PRUSSIA, OR NORTH GERMANY.

1. THE kingdom of Prussia is quite modern, dating its establishment from the year 1701 A.C. Previous to that time the territory under the rule of the King of

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Prussia, up to 1806, composed several states, the principal of which was the dukedom of Prussia. Recently it comprised, in addition to the ancient dukedom, the electorate of Brandenburg, which contains Berlin, the capital; Silesia, conquered by Frederick II.; and parts of Poland and Saxony.

The foundation of the kingdom was laid by the celebrated Frederick William, surnamed the Great Elector, who, succeeding to the electorate of Brandenburg in 1640, by a most spirited reign of forty-eight years, during which he was almost constantly engaged in the wars which distracted Europe, elevated the electorate to an important and prosperous position. He was succeeded by his son, Frederick I., whose ambition for the title of king was gratified in 1701.

3. The next distinguished King of Prussia was the renowned Frederick II., surnamed the Great, who ascended the throne in 1740. He was the greatest warrior of his age; and by the conquest of Silesia, in 1742, and the acquisition of New Prussia—which was his share in the infamous partition of Poland in 1772—he greatly enlarged his dominions. During his reign he was engaged in war with Austria, Russia, Sweden, France, and Saxony. He died in 1786, and was succeeded by Frederick William II., during whose reign the French Revolution of 1789 broke out, and the last execrable partition of Poland took place, in 1795.

4. Frederick William III. succeeded, in 1797, amidst the storms which the French Revolution had aroused throughout Europe. For some time he contrived to keep the kingdom aloof from the fierce contests which were raging in every direction; but at last, in 1806, he joined the fourth great coalition against Napoleon. Having attempted, single-handed, to oppose the irresistible impetuosity of the French emperor, the Prussian armies were signally defeated in the great battles of Jena and Auerstadt, and the kingdom was subjected to the mercy of the conqueror. By the treaty

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of Tilsit, in 1807, the King of Prussia lost nearly one half his dominions. After the downfall of Napoleon, however, these losses were restored, with new accessions, by the treaty of Vienna, in 1815. Frederick William III. was succeeded by Frederick William IV., in 1840.

5. In the great political drama enacted in Europe during the momentous years of 1848 and 1849, the part performed by Prussia will entitle her to a distinguished place in the history of that eventful period; but the events were, for the most part, ephemeral, and left no permanent result proportioned to the greatness of the commotion, nor did any event of great and enduring importance take place for some years after. In 1861, the king, dying, was succeeded by his brother, William I., who had been regent for some years, during the late king's illness.

6. The years 1862 and 1863 were remarkable for the struggle between the government and the representatives of the people about the military expenditure, which was deemed enormous for a time of peace, but which subsequent events showed to be only a preparation for war. The deputies refused the supplies, but the king overruled all their votes, and proved that the constitution was only a farce. The crown prince, Frederick William, who had been married to the Princess Royal of England in 1858, remonstrated with his father on his unconstitutional government, but to no purpose; the king, or rather his energetic minister, Herr Von Bismarck, continuing to exercise despotic sway.

7. The principal events of the ensuing most eventful period have been already briefly mentioned under the head of Austria. These were the war against Denmark, in 1864; the treaty of Gastein, in 1865; and the war with Austria, in 1866. In this latter struggle, the Germanic Diet, which sat at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, sided with Austria; and the result of the Prussian victories was not only the humiliation of

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Austria, but the extinction of the Diet, and the annexation of all the small states of Northern Germany to Prussia—including Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort, and since that time Prussia has been daily consolidating its power. Two representative bodies now sit at Berlin, the capital, namely, a Prussian parliament and a North-German parliament. The people return liberal majorities to both; but the greatly increased power of Prussia having roused the jealousy of France, no objection has of late been raised to the great military establishment which is necessary to support that position of strength.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER X.

1. What is said of the kingdom of Prussia? What does it now comprise?
2. Who laid the foundation of the kingdom? By whom was Frederick William succeeded, and what occurred in 1701?
3. Who was the next distinguished king? What is said of him? When did he die? Who succeeded him, and what afterwards took place?
4. Who succeeded in 1797, and under what circumstances? What part did Prussia take in the wars of the French Revolution, and with what result?
5. What is said of Prussia in 1848 and 1849? What king succeeded in 1861?
6. For what were the years 1862 and 1863 remarkable in Prussia? What remarkable minister conducted the government at this time?
7. What were the principal events in which Prussia was concerned in the succeeding years? What was the result of the great struggle with Austria in 1866? What states were annexed to Prussia on this occasion? What parliaments now sit in Berlin? How was the jealousy of France aroused, and what has been the effect in Prussia?

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# CHAPTER XI.

## POLAND.

1. ALTHOUGH the history of Poland dates its commencement in the middle of the sixth century after Christ, yet there is little of general interest until the fifteenth century. In the tenth century, during the reign of Mieczyslaus, Christianity was introduced; and during the fourteenth century, the reign of Casimir III. was illustrated by the founding of the university of Cracow, and the encouragement given to learning, industry, and commerce.

2. The reign of Sigismund I., who ascended the throne in 1506 A.C., advanced Poland to its acme of prosperity. This flourishing condition was maintained during the whole of the sixteenth century, after which it began to decline, owing to the wars with the Russians and the Turks, and the internal dissensions which distracted the country. The illustrious John Sobieski, however, who was elected king in 1674 A.C., for a brief period upheld, by his patriotism and splendid talents, the declining fortunes of his country. His great victories over the Turks proved him one of the greatest generals of his age. He died in 1696, and with him died the prosperity of Poland.

3. Between 1700 and 1709 an unfortunate war was waged by Poland against Sweden, then under the sway of the celebrated Charles XII. The Poles were defeated; the Polish king, Frederick Augustus, was deposed; and Stanislaus was placed on the throne through the influence of Charles XII. After the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, in which Charles XII. of Sweden was defeated by Peter the Great of Russia, Frederick Augustus was restored to the throne.

4. Poland, weakened and distracted, after this became the prey of her powerful neighbours, Russia Austria, and Prussia, all of which made inroads upon

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her, and finally, by three different partitions, annihilated her existence as a nation. The first partition took place in 1772; the second in 1793; and the third in 1795. These partitions, which robbed the unhappy Poles of their country and independence, are amongst the most infamous acts of modern times, and have brought down upon the powers concerned in them the deserved execration of the civilized world.

5. In 1812 there was a temporary re-establishment of the kingdom by the aid of the French; and in 1815, Cracow, with a small surrounding territory, was made a republic under the protection of Austria; but since that time Poland has been a scene of almost constant struggles to throw off the intolerable yoke of Russia. The principal efforts were made in 1830 and 1831, in 1846, and finally in 1861 and 1863. On all these occasions the civil wars were of the most desperate nature. The most devoted patriotism, heroism, and endurance were displayed by the unhappy Poles; so that their fame for these qualities, as well as compassion for their misfortunes, has been spread all over the world; but the vast power of Russia has overridden all their efforts, and crushed them in every struggle. All their national institutions have been annihilated; attempts have been made to obliterate their language and suppress their religion; and now (in 1868) it may be said that even the name of Poland only belongs to history. The fate of Poland may be called one of the chief sorrows of modern history, and in many respects it presents a striking resemblance to that of Ireland.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XI.

1. What is said of the history of Poland? What signalised the tenth and fourteenth centuries?
2. What is said of the reign of Sigismund I.? What is said of this flourishing condition? What is said of John Sobieski?
3. What occurred between 1700 and 1709?
4. What is said of Poland after this? What were the par-

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titions which dismembered it, and what is said of those partitions?

5. What happened to Poland in 1812 and 1815? What struggles have taken place in Poland since that time? What are the dates of the principal civil wars? What character have the Poles obtained in these struggles? What has been the result of their efforts? How has Poland been treated by the Russians? What may be said of the fate of Poland?

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## CHAPTER XII.

### THE NETHERLANDS AND BELGIUM.

1. The kingdom of the Netherlands was erected after the overthrow of Napoleon, in 1814, out of the United Provinces of Holland and those of Flanders, or the Netherlands. During the middle ages, Holland and the Netherlands were united to Germany, under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, but became independent in the tenth century, when the supreme authority was vested in the united powers of a count, the nobles, and the towns. In 1453, they became subject to the Dukes of Burgundy. In 1477 the Emperor Charles V., who was the heir of that family, transferred them to the House of Austria; but the tyranny of his son, Philip II. of Spain, instigated them to throw off his yoke. Spain and all Europe recognized the independence of the United Provinces in 1609.

2. In 1621, the United Provinces maintained a second war with Spain; in 1652, the war which was declared against them by Oliver Cromwell, and which has been noticed, commenced; in 1672, they resisted the invasion of the French under Louis XIV.; in 1689, the Prince of Orange, Stadholder of Holland, ascended the throne of England, on the deposition of King James II., to whose daughter, Mary, he had been married. In 1780, a second war with Great Britain

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took place, in which the Hollanders lost most of their colonies; and finally, in 1795, the provinces were overrun by the armies of the French Republic. In 1806, Napoleon caused his brother Louis to be proclaimed King of Holland; in 1810, Holland was annexed to the French Empire; and in 1814, after the first dethronement of Napoleon, the exiled Prince of Orange was recalled, and Flanders being annexed to Holland, he assumed the title of King of the Netherlands as William I.

3. That portion of the Netherlands now called Belgium, shared, for the most part, the fortunes of the rest of the country, until 1830, when an insurrection broke out in Brussels, and Belgium threw off the yoke of the Dutch, or Hollanders, and became an independent kingdom. The Dutch made war on the new kingdom, but were completely overthrown at the famous siege of Antwerp, in 1832, by a French army sent to aid the Belgians; and Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, uncle of Queen Victoria, having been chosen King of Belgium in 1831, married, in the following year, the daughter of Louis Philippe, King of France. Leopold died in 1865, and was succeeded by his son, Leopold II.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XII.

1. When, and out of what, was the present kingdom of the Netherlands erected? What is said of Holland and the Netherlands during the middle ages? What occurred in 1477 and subsequently?
2. What are the other events mentioned in their history?
3. When did Belgium become a separate kingdom? By whose aid were the Dutch overcome?

## CHAPTER XIII.

### DENMARK.

1. THE early history of Denmark is obscure and unimportant, the predatory and piratical expeditions

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of the inhabitants, which have been noticed in the history of England, being the only feature in those times worthy of notice. In 1387, Margaret, Queen of Denmark, having married Haco, King of Norway, the two crowns became united; and in 1397, Margaret having conquered Sweden, the three crowns of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were, by the treaty of Calmar, united.

2. The three crowns remained united until 1523, when the celebrated Gustavus Vasa, of Sweden, at the head of the revolted Swedes, threw off the Danish yoke, and became King of Sweden. In 1699, Frederick IV., King of Denmark, declared war against Charles XII. of Sweden, but was in the end obliged to sue for peace. The war terminated in 1720, from which time, until 1801, Denmark enjoyed peace.

3. At the latter period, during the reign of Christian VII., Denmark having joined the confederacy of the northern continental powers against England, who maintained the right to search neutral vessels, the British fleet, under Lord Nelson, attacked the batteries of Copenhagen. Hostilities soon afterwards ceased; but, in 1807, the British again took occasion to bombard the city, under pretence that Denmark was about to aid France, and the whole of the Danish fleet was carried to England. In 1814, Denmark was compelled to cede Norway to Sweden. From that period Denmark remained at peace, until the great commotions in Europe in 1848 and 1849, when she engaged in a fierce conflict with Prussia, for aiding the inhabitants of Holstein, a Danish province, in their revolt against the government.

4. For a long succession of years, the people, not only of Holstein, but of Sleswick, endeavoured to throw off their subjection to Denmark; and latterly, on the ground that they were Germans, their cause was taken up by other German states; until at length, in 1864, the Frankfort Diet having decreed intervention in their behalf, an Austrian and Prussian combined army



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entered the duchies, and, after a brief war, as we have already seen, compelled Denmark to relinquish all claim upon them. The two duchies, however, only got separated from Denmark, in 1864, to be absorbed by Prussia, in 1866.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XIII.

1. What is said of the early history of Denmark? What happened in 1387 and 1397?
2. Up to what time did these crowns remain united? What occurred in 1699? What is said of Denmark between 1720 to 1801?
3. What occurred in 1801 and subsequently? What is said of Denmark since?
4. Under what circumstances were the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein separated from Denmark, and what has been their subsequent fate?

## CHAPTER XIV.

### SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

1. SWEDEN and NORWAY formed the ancient Scandinavia—the region from which the Goths and Vandals issued in their inroads upon the territories of the Roman Empire. The first inhabitants of these countries, as well as of Denmark, were the Cimbri. They were, originally, separate monarchies; but their early history presents nothing of interest. As we have seen, in the notice of Denmark, Margaret, queen of that country, having married Haco, King of Norway, the two crowns became united in 1387, and to them was shortly added the crown of Sweden.

2. After Gustavus Vasa had dissolved this union, and established the independence of Sweden, in 1523, there were five kings descended from him to the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, whose reign, commencing in 1611, was signalized by distinguished military ex-

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ploits in wars with Russia, Denmark, and Poland, and by the ascendency which at that time Sweden gained in the affairs of Germany. From this time, to the reign of the ambitious and warlike Charles XII., little of interest occurs. That monarch, who has been styled the Alexander of the North, was, throughout his reign, constantly engaged in war. He defeated the Danes in 1700; the same year he gained the great battle of Narva, in which, with 8,000 men, he defeated 100,000 Russians; the next year he vanquished the Poles near Riga, and took possession of Lithuania and Mittau; and in 1707 he entered Russia. There, however, after a series of battles, he was entirely defeated by Peter the Great, at the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, and obliged to take refuge with the Turks. He was killed by a cannon ball, in 1717.

3. Since the death of Charles XII., Russia has made gradual encroachments on the territories of Sweden. Finland was taken from her in 1808, and Gustavus IV., whose extravagance and folly had produced this disaster, being in consequence deposed, Bernadotte, one of the marshals of Napoleon, was elected crown prince, in 1809. On the death of Charles XIII., in 1818, Bernadotte succeeded to the throne, with the title of Charles XIV., and was succeeded by his son, Oscar, in 1844. In 1814, Norway became united to the crown of Sweden, but enjoys a distinct national existence.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XIV.

1. What is said of the early history of Sweden and Norway?
2. What is said of Sweden after Gustavus Vasa? What marked the reigns of Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII.?
3. What has occurred since the death of Charles XII.?

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## CHAPTER XV.

### RUSSIA.

1. THERE is nothing of much importance in the history of Russia until the reign of Peter the Great, who was in fact the founder of that empire. This extraordinary man succeeded to the throne in 1696 A.C., and immediately commenced carrying out those brilliant plans, which have deservedly ranked him among the greatest sovereigns of modern times. To learn the art of ship-building, he worked in disguise, as a common tradesman, in the dockyards of Amsterdam and in England; he was successful in his war with the Turks, and contended against the skill and valour of Charles XII. of Sweden, whom, after several defeats, he at last conquered in the battle of Pultowa, in 1709. Amidst the wars which he was compelled to support, Peter did not forget the internal welfare of the empire. He made the most salutary regulations; built the great city of St. Petersburg; instituted a numerous infantry, and formed a powerful navy.

2. Catherine II., the seventh sovereign after Peter the Great, upon the dethronement and murder of her husband, Peter III., ascended the throne in 1762, and had a long and splendid reign, during which she improved the internal affairs of the empire, and enlarged its dominions. She was, however, a heartless and unprincipled despot. During her reign the three partitions of unhappy Poland took place.

3. Catherine II. was succeeded, in 1796, by her son, Paul, who, after a short reign of five years, was assassinated, and succeeded by Alexander, in 1801. The reign of this emperor was signalized by the prominent position which he took in the wars produced by the

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ambition of Napoleon, already noticed. In 1812, Napoleon made his unfortunate invasion of Russia, from which, after the burning of Moscow, he was compelled to make his disastrous retreat. In 1813, Alexander, after being defeated by Napoleon in several battles, was at length victorious at Leipsic, and, in 1814, he entered Paris at the head of the allies.

4. In 1825, Alexander was succeeded by his brother, Nicholas I., who waged wars against the Persians and the Turks, and aided Austria, in 1849, to crush the great Hungarian revolution, at the head of which were Klapka and Kossuth. At this period the Russian name was the terror of revolutionists, and the main support of despotism in every part of Europe; and the power of Russia had reached its greatest height.

5. Nicholas, however, lived to see this excessive power receive a serious check. In 1853 took place the dispute with Turkey relative to the Holy Places in Palestine, which was only made an excuse for an intended conquest of Turkey; but the latter country obtained the active aid of France and England; and the great Russian war, which commenced in October, 1853, and of which the memorable siege of Sebastopol was the principal feature, was the consequence. The siege began September 26, 1854, and ended with the capture of the Malakhoff battery, by the French, September 8, 1855; and on the 2nd of March, that year, while the Russian arms were suffering fatal reverses in the Crimea, Nicholas I. died, and was succeeded by his son, Alexander II.

6. The new czar, more enlightened than any of his predecessors, set about repairing the injuries which the empire had suffered in the late war. He restored its fortresses, rebuilt its fleets, constructed railways; his greatest work, however, being the emancipation of the serfs, which he commenced in 1858, and carried out fully in 1861 and 1862. The internal progress of Russia within the last few years has been very great; and now, in 1868, not a little alarm has been created

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by the Russian conquests in Bokhara, commenced in 1865, and the consequent approach of the Russian arms to the frontiers of British India.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XV.

1. What is said of Russia to the time of Peter the Great? What is said of Peter the Great?
2. Who was the seventh sovereign after Peter the Great? What is said of her and her reign?
3. Who succeeded Catherine II.? Who succeeded Paul? What occurred during the reign of Alexander I.?
4. Who succeeded Alexander I.? What wars did Nicholas carry on? What is said of the power of Russia at this period?
5. What happened in 1853? What great war then commenced? What memorable siege took place? When and under what circumstances did Nicholas die?
6. How did the new czar act? When were the Russian serfs emancipated? What has been the internal progress of Russia lately? What about the Russian conquests in Bokhara?

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## CHAPTER XVI.

### TURKEY AND GREECE.

1. In the seventh chapter of the "Middle Ages," we have given an account of the Ottomans, or Turks, to the fall of the Eastern Empire of the Romans, in 1453, when Constantinople fell beneath the power of the Turkish sultan, Mahomet II. After that period, the Turks extended their dominion over a great portion of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and established their empire over those countries which are most hallowed as the ancient homes of literature, science, and art. The reign of Solyman, surnamed the Magnificent, between 1520 and 1566 A.C., is illustrious for important conquests—Rhodes, Hungary, Assyria, Mesopotamia

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Bagdad, and Tunis, being successively brought under the power of the Turks.

2. Since the reign of Solyman, Turkey has been, with but little cessation, engaged in wars—with the Venetians in 1566, 1640, 1649, 1669, and 1715; with Persia, in 1603, 1619, 1623, and 1721; with Germany and Austria, in 1592, 1649, 1683, 1716, 1737, and 1787; with Poland, in 1621 and in 1672, when the Turks were defeated by the illustrious John Sobieski; and with Russia, in 1736, 1768, 1787, and 1808. The result of these wars was a great diminution of Turkish power in Europe, though it has not been materially diminished in Asia.

3. But the severest blows which the Turks have received in Europe and in Asia, have been given at a very recent period. In 1820, Greece, the classic land of freedom, which had for centuries been crushed beneath the iron rule of Turkish despotism, revolted; and, after seven years' struggle with her oppressors, aided by England, France, and Russia, achieved once more her independence, in the naval battle of Navarino, in 1827, when she adopted a monarchical form of government, and accepted a foreign prince, Otho, for her king. In 1862, Otho became so unpopular that he was compelled to fly from Greece, and a young prince of Denmark was chosen king, with the title of George I.

4. In 1828, Turkey suffered several losses in a war with Russia; and, in 1832, it was, on the other hand, aided by Russia in a war against Mehemet Ali, the Viceroy of Egypt, whose son, Ibrahim Pasha, had invaded Syria. This war ended in the virtual independence of Mehemet Ali, who was recognized as hereditary Viceroy of Egypt. In 1849, the Turkish government acted in a highly honorable and chivalrous manner, by refusing, at the peril of a war, to surrender several thousand Hungarian refugees, who had retreated within the Turkish frontier from the combined Russian and Austrian armies.

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5. The years 1853 to 1856 are famous for the great Russian war, already noticed, and in which the Ottoman Porte (as the Turkish government is styled) was so powerfully aided by France and England, and ultimately by Sardinia also. In the final adjustment of affairs arising out of this war, the Danubian Principalities, or duchies of Moldavia and Wallachia, were separated from Turkey, but united as one principality, under the suzerainty of the sultan. The Turks have generally treated their Christian subjects with cruelty, and the Christians on their side have been evermore rising against this oppression: hence the constant succession of insurrections in the Turkish provinces of Servia, Albania, Montenegro, etc. But the most serious and desperate of all these revolts has been that of the Christians of Candia, who rose in 1866, and whom it required all the power of the Ottoman Empire, with the aid of an auxiliary force from Egypt, to subdue, with even doubtful effect, in 1868.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XVI.

1. What is said of the Turks after the fall of Constantinople, in 1453? What is said of the reign of Solyman?
2. What is said of Turkey since the reign of Solyman? What was the result of those wars?
3. What occurred in Greece in 1820? What occurred in 1862?
4. What occurred to Turkey in 1828? and in 1832? How did the Turkish government act in 1849?
5. What great war was Turkey engaged in during the years 1853 to 1856? How were the Danubian Principalities settled upon this? How have the Turks generally treated their Christian subjects? What has been the result? What has been the latest of these Christian revolts against the Turks?

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## PART FOUR.

# AMERICA AND AUSTRALIA.

ALTHOUGH the history of America is properly included under the general head of Modern History, which forms the subject of the third part of these "Outlines," yet such is its peculiar interest and importance —so momentous have been the events flowing from its discovery and settlement—and so wide-spread has been the influence which it has exerted, and continues to exert, in the affairs of the rest of the world, that we have judged it better to assign it a distinct, though necessarily brief division. This division will comprise—1st, Discoveries and settlements; 2nd, North America to the period of the Revolution; 3rd, the Revolution; 4th, The United States to the present time; 5th, Mexico and the South American States; and to these we shall add an historical sketch of another new quarter of the world—Australia.

## CHAPTER I.

### DISCOVERIES AND SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA.

1. THE discovery of America is undoubtedly the greatest event of modern times. The age in which it took place was well calculated to produce the spirit, genius, and enterprise which achieved it. Independently of the adventurous spirit produced by the

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Crusades, the consequent decline of the feudal system in Europe, and the revival of literature, art, and science, accelerated by the events whi h followed the taking of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453,—commerce, directed by the Italian cities of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, had opened a new field for ambitious exertion, and held out brilliant inducements to the eager spirit of the age.

2. The Italian cities, particularly Venice, previous to the period of which we speak, monopolized the lucrative trade of the East Indies, with which they had sole communication from the shores of the Mediterranean, through the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez; and the wealth, power, and magnificence which they acquired from this trade, awakened a desire in other quarters to supplant them by discovering another and more advantageous route to the Indies. For this purpose the Portuguese made the most strenuous exertions, which were finally successful. Their attempts to obtain a route by coasting the western shores of Africa, led to the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1486, and the doubling of that cape by the Portuguese navigator, Vasco de Gama, in 1487; and his thus reaching the shores of India gave a fatal blow to Venetian commerce, and diverted the trade of the East in favour of the Portuguese.

3. But, in the meanwhile, some years before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, a bolder and more splendid idea, originating from the same desire which stimulated the Portuguese, burst upon the mind of Christopher Columbus. He was a native of Genoa, and sprung from obscure parentage. Having been engaged in a seafaring life from an early age, and possessing an active and inquiring mind, far beyond what was common to the age in which he lived, from close study and patient investigation, this great man had obtained a knowledge of the true figure of the earth. He conceived the idea, that, in order to balance the globe, another continent lay to the

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west, and that the Indies could be reached by sailing from Europe in a westerly direction.

4. Eight years, however, of constant suspense intervened before he realized his lofty hopes. Unsuccessful but urgent applications were made for aid, first from his own countrymen, and subsequently at the courts of Portugal, Spain, and England. His theory was treated with contempt, and his overtures were rejected. Columbus bore up under his disappointments with no common fortitude and perseverance. He was at last, through the influence of some distinguished friends at the court of Spain, so fortunate as to win the favour of Isabella, the consort of Ferdinand of Spain; and under her generous patronage, three small vessels were fitted out for the proposed voyage.

5. On the 3rd of August, 1492, Columbus, with his small fleet, set sail from Palos, in Spain, and, after a voyage of thrilling dangers and adventure, discovered the first land in the Western Hemisphere, on the 11th October, 1492. It was one of the Bahama islands, and received from Columbus the name of San Salvador. During this voyage, Columbus also discovered the islands of Cuba and San Domingo.

6. Columbus afterwards made three other voyages from Spain to the New World, discovering numerous other islands; and in his third voyage he discovered the continent of South America. 1498 A.C.

7. Notwithstanding the vast wealth and importance which this truly great man, through his discoveries, bestowed upon Spain, and though at first loaded with honours and distinction, he at last received from that ungrateful kingdom most shameful and ungenerous treatment, and by the fraud of Americus Vespucius, a Florentine, who, following the track of Columbus, in 1499, claimed the honour of first discovering the main land, he was robbed of the distinction of giving his name to the New World. Columbus died at Valladolid, in 1506, about sixty-nine years of age.

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8. The wonderful success of Columbus roused a spirit for discovery throughout Europe. England, stung with regret at the brilliant prize she had rejected, determined to profit by the splendid prospects which now dazzled the world. An English expedition was set on foot, under a commission from Henry VII., at the head of which was John Cabot, a Venetian, and his son, Sebastian Cabot. The Cabots set sail in May, 1497, and discovered the continent of North America. They sailed along the coast of North America, from Newfoundland—the land they first discovered—to Florida. In 1500, Cabra, a Portuguese, discovered Brazil. Florida was discovered in 1515. In 1524 and 1534 the French made valuable discoveries in North America. In the latter year, Cartier, the French navigator, discovered the gulf and river St. Lawrence, and next year sailed up that river and discovered the Canadas. In 1539, Soto, a Spaniard, reached the banks of the Mississippi. Several attempts, which led to other valuable discoveries, were afterwards made at various times, particularly by the English, without success, to find a north-west passage to India. While engaged in one of these expeditions, Henry Hudson, in the service of the Dutch, discovered, in 1609, the fine river which bears his name, and on which the first permanent settlements were made by the Dutch.

9. Although several settlements were made, even in the time of Columbus, on the islands which he had discovered, some years elapsed before any were commenced by the Spaniards on the continent. The first important step taken for this purpose was that which was conducted by the celebrated Hernando Cortez, who, in 1519, with a fleet of eleven small vessels, having on board 617 men, sailed from Cuba for the invasion of Mexico, and landed at Vera Cruz. Thence, with his small and ill-conditioned force, he pushed rapidly into the interior of the country, to the Aztec city of Mexico, where he was received by Montezuma, the Mexican emperor, with every appearance of amity.

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While in the city of Mexico, Cortez having received intelligence that the Mexicans had attacked the colony which he had left at Vera Cruz, and apprehensive of being cut off from a retreat, in case of necessity, conceived the bold design of securing the safety of himself and comrades by seizing the person of the emperor. This he accomplished by stratagem; but the inhabitants, roused to fury by the act, forced the Spaniards to abandon the city. In the tumult, Montezuma, whilst attempting to quell the insurrection, was slain by a stone thrown from among his own people.

10. Montezuma was immediately succeeded by his nephew, Guatimozin, who continued the fierce resistance against the Spaniards. But nothing could overcome the courage and ardour of Cortez, who, having formed an alliance with the Tlascalans, a friendly tribe, and being reinforced by Spanish soldiery, completed the conquest, and became master of the Mexican Empire, in 1521.

11. In 1518, the Spaniards made a settlement at Panama, on the west side of the Isthmus of Darien. From this place Francis Pizarro, under a commission from Charles V., sailed in 1525, in quest of the rich country of Peru; and afterwards, in 1531, invaded that empire, and, after a fierce resistance on the part of the inhabitants, subjected it to the Spanish crown. This conquest was marked by atrocities which have consigned the name of Pizarro to everlasting infamy.

12. In North America the progress of the settlement was more tardy than in the South. Upwards of eighty years elapsed before the English took any steps to avail themselves of their important discoveries. In 1554, Sir Walter Raleigh, under a commission from Queen Elizabeth, reached America, and took possession of the country at the mouth of Albemarle Sound, and, in honour of the queen, named it Virginia. Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, and Sir Richard Greenville afterwards attempted to

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establish settlements in that part of the country, but without success. The first effectual attempt was made in 1607, during the reign of James I., when a party of adventurers, the most prominent of whom was Captain John Smith, settled on the Powhattan, or James River, and commenced the building of a town, which they named Jamestown.

13. In 1609, as we have seen, Henry Hudson, in the service of the Dutch, discovered the Hudson River and the adjacent country. Afterwards, in 1614, the Dutch formed two settlements in that region—one at the site of the present city of Albany, and the other on Manhattan Island, where the city of New York now stands. They styled the country the New Netherlands, and the town on Manhattan Island New Amsterdam. In 1664, England, during the reign of Charles II., having been engaged in a successful war with the Dutch, the latter, by the treaty of Breda, ceded to the former their colony in America, which afterwards, in honour of the king's brother, the Duke of York, was styled New York, the name it still retains.

14. In 1620, during the reign of James I., the first permanent settlement was commenced in New England, at Plymouth, in Massachusetts, by a band of Puritans—a class of religionists, who, abandoning England on account of persecution from the Established Church, sought in the wilds of America the enjoyment of religious liberty. They had scarcely, however, established themselves in the New World, before they themselves exhibited greater intolerance than that from which they had fled, and most cruelly persecuted all who differed from them in religious belief. In 1628, the colony of Massachusetts Bay was commenced under John Endicott; and in 1630, John Winthrop commenced the settlement of Boston and other neighbouring places.

15. In 1623, the settlement of New Hampshire was commenced at Dover and Portsmouth. The colonies at

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these places were annexed to Massachusetts in 1641; but, in 1679, New Hampshire obtained a separate government.

16. In 1635, the settlement of Connecticut was commenced at Windsor and Weathersfield. In 1665, these colonies, and that which had been commenced at New Haven in 1638, were united.

17. Rhode Island was first settled in consequence of religious persecutions in Massachusetts. Roger Williams, who was among those who settled early in Massachusetts, having differed in some points with his brother Puritans, was banished from that colony, and went, with twelve of his adherents, and settled at Providence in Rhode Island, in 1635.

18. Delaware was first settled by a colony of Swedes and Fins, who came over and landed at Cape Henlopen, in 1627, and afterwards purchased of the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the fall of the Delaware, on both sides of the river. The country was called New Sweden. The Dutch, however, who had settled at New Amsterdam, invaded and took possession of the Swedish settlement in 1651; and it afterwards formed a part of New York, when the English supplanted the Dutch, in 1664.

19. In 1663, during the reign of Charles I., Lord Baltimore, a Catholic nobleman, and a man of distinguished talents, applied for, and obtained, a grant of land upon Chesapeake Bay, about 140 miles long and 130 broad. Soon after, in consequence of persecution in England on account of their religion, Lord Baltimore and a number of Catholics came over and settled on this grant, which, in honour of the queen, Henrietta Maria, they named Maryland. The history of this colony presents, in several important respects, a most pleasing contrast to that of most of the other colonies. Universal toleration in religion was, for the first time on this continent, proclaimed and protected by this colony, and a system of equity and humanity was scrupulously observed in all dealings with the Indians

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The historian, Bancroft, in speaking of the settlement of Maryland, says: "Its history is the history of benevolence, gratitude, and toleration. The Roman Catholics who were oppressed by the laws of England, were sure to find a peaceful asylum in the quiet harbours of the Chesapeake; and there, too, Protestants were sheltered from Protestant intolerance."

20. In 1664, Charles II. granted to the Duke of York the country now known as New Jersey, some parts of which had been previously settled by the Dutch.

21. In 1669, a colony, at the head of which was Governor Sales, was established at the spot where Charleston, South Carolina, now stands, under a grant from Charles II., comprising a wide extent of territory. In 1729, this extensive grant was divided into two distinct territories, called North and South Carolina; and subsequently, in 1732, another province was carved out of the same grant, which, in honour of the king, George II., was styled Georgia. A settlement was immediately afterwards commenced on the Savannah River, in Georgia, under the direction of General Oglethorpe.

22. In 1681, the royal charter for Pennsylvania was granted to the celebrated William Penn. The next year he, with about 2,000 associates, most of them, like himself, attached to the sect of Quakers, arrived in the country, and soon after commenced operations on the spot where Philadelphia now stands.

23. Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, Delaware, Connecticut, Maryland, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Georgia, were the thirteen original states which revolted against the government of Great Britain, in 1775.

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QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER I.

1. What is said of the discovery of America, and the age in which it took place?
2. What is said of the Italian cities previous to this period? What attempts were made by the Portuguese, and with what success, to divert the commerce of the East?
3. What happened in the meanwhile? Who was Christopher Columbus, and what is said of him? What idea did he conceive?
4. What were the efforts of Columbus to obtain aid? How and from whom did he at length receive it?
5. When did Columbus sail, and what was the result of the voyage? What was the first land discovered? What other islands were discovered during this voyage?
6. What other voyages were made by Columbus, and what distinguished his third voyage?
7. What is said of the treatment which Columbus received from Spain, and how was he robbed of the honour of giving his name to the New World?
8. What was the effect of the discoveries of Columbus? What course did the English take, and what was the result? What discovery was made in 1500? In 1515? In 1524 and 1534? In 1539? What led to other valuable discoveries? What occurred in 1609?
9. What is said of the settlements by the Spaniards on the islands discovered by Columbus? What was the first important step towards a settlement by them on the continent? What was the course taken by Cortez? What occurred after his reaching the city of Mexico? What was the consequence, and what became of Montezuma?
10. Who succeeded Montezuma? What completed the conquest of Mexico?
11. What settlement was made by the Spaniards in 1518? What expedition sailed from this place in 1525? What was the result? What is said of this conquest?
12. What is said of the progress of settlement in North America? What happened in 1584, and afterwards? When and where was the first effectual settlement commenced in Virginia?
13. What were the first settlements in New York? What occurred in 1664?



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14. When and by whom was the first settlement commenced in New England? What is said of these settlers? What settlements commenced in 1628 and 1630?
15. What is said of the first settlement in New Hampshire?
16. What were the first settlements of Connecticut, and what is said of them?
17. What occasioned the settlement of Rhode Island?
18. What was the first settlement of Delaware? What happened in 1651 and 1664?
19. What led to that of Maryland? What is said of the history of the Maryland colony? What is the remark quoted from Bancroft?
20. What is said of New Jersey?
21. What was the first settlement in South Carolina? What took place in 1729, and subsequently, in 1732? Under whom was the first settlement in Georgia commenced?
22. To whom was Pennsylvania granted, and what is said of the first settlement?
23. Which were the thirteen original states which revolted in 1775?

## CHAPTER II.

### THE NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

*From their Settlement, to the Revolution in* 1775.

1. THE Anglo-American colonies struggled against many difficulties, and the events of their early political history bore a strong resemblance. In some instances, the treatment which the Indians, the rightful owners of the soil, received from the European adventurers, roused a vindictive spirit of hostility in the breasts of the former, and became the occasion of much bloodshed and cruelty. This was particularly the case in the New England colonies, where, in many instances, the treatment of the Indians was unjust and rapacious. Another fruitful source of disquiet was the vicinity of the French settlement in Canada, which,

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as we have seen, was acquired by the French crown in virtue of the discovery made by Cartier, in 1534. During the wars which were, with but little intermission, carried on by England and France in the Old World, the colonies of these kingdoms in the New World wasted their vigour in support of European objects of ambition, by being compelled to take active parts in the hostilities.

2. The French governors of Canada always possessed such influence over the north-western Indians, that they were enabled to employ them in their operations against the English colonists, and, in consequence, the frontiers often presented scenes of havoc and desolation. To put an end to this savage warfare, the English colonists, feebly aided by the government, made several attempts to subvert the French authority in Canada, and take possession of the country—all which attempts, however, failed.

3. After the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the Colonies enjoyed for several years a state of comparative tranquillity; but, upon the renewal of war between France and England, in 1744, the colonies were again ravaged by the French and Indians. New York and New England had previously suffered most; but at this time the extension of the French settlements to the Ohio, opened the frontiers of Virginia and Pennslyvania to their attacks. In 1745, Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, was taken from the French by a resolute band of New Englanders, under William Pepper, a Boston merchant. This place was, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, restored to the French, to the great mortification of the colonists.

4. After this a short period of peace succeeded, which was interrupted by the conflicting pretensions of England and France to the country watered by the river Ohio. The French, having been the first discoverers of the Mississippi, claimed all the country which bordered it and its tributaries; and during the peace which followed the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle,

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made great exertions to protect their colonies of Canada and Louisiana by a line of military posts, extending from lake Ontario to the Ohio, and down that river and the Mississippi to New Orleans.

5. In the meantime, however, the King of England gave a grant of land, lying on the Ohio river, to a company of traders, styled the Ohio Company, who established some trading houses on the river. The French, claiming an exclusive right to the land, violently opposed these measures, and took some of the traders, whom they retained as prisoners.

6. The result was, the colonial government of Virginia, which claimed the disputed land as a portion of its territory, protested against the conduct of the French, and deputed George Washington, afterwards the illustrious deliverer of his country, and then a youth twenty-one years of age, to bear the protest to the French commandant at Fort Duquesne—the site of the present city of Pittsburgh—and to insist that the French should evacuate that fort. The French commandant of course disregarded the mission, merely stating that he had acted according to his orders. This event happened in 1753, and was shortly followed by open hostilities between Great Britain and France.

7. This was the commencement of the "French and Indian War," so styled from the fact that the French, acting on their former policy, made the Indians their allies in the conflict. At the opening of the war, Washington was made colonel of a regiment of Virginians. Troops were soon raised throughout the colonies, naval and land forces arrived from England, and expeditions were sent against Nova Scotia, Crown Point, and Niagara, in 1755.

8. The same year was rendered memorable by the unfortunate expedition against Fort Duquesne. It was commanded by the English general Braddock, who, in addition to two British regular regiments, had also the regiment of colonial troops under Washington. Through the imprudence or recklessness of Braddock

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the expedition failed, the army being defeated by the French and Indians. Braddock himself was slain, and nothing but the distinguished courage and coolness of Washington saved the army from utter ruin. The other expeditions resulted in nothing of importance.

9. The campaigns of 1756 and 1757 were conducted with great inefficiency on the part of the British generals; but afterwards, when the celebrated William Pitt (Lord Chatham) became prime minister of England, the war took a more decided aspect. In 1758, Louisburg and Fort Duquesne fell before the British and colonial forces; and the tide of success set in so strongly in their favour, that, in the succeeding year, Quebec and the whole of Canada were conquered. Ticonderoga and Crown Point were also taken. The war closed with the treaty of Paris, in 1763, by which Canada, Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton became British provinces. The British generals who were most distinguished in this war, were the celebrated Wolfe, who fell in the moment of victory before Quebec, and Amherst. The French general Montcalm, the great rival of Wolfe, also fell, mortally wounded, in the defence of Quebec.

10. The colonies being relieved from this harassing warfare, now began to rise rapidly in wealth and power. Their prosperous condition speedily attracted the attention and interest of the British government, which, in order to assert and render more secure its sovereignty over them, formed the design of subjecting them to a system of taxation.

11. The first step taken for this purpose was met by fierce indignation from the colonists, who denied the constitutional right of Great Britain to tax them. The famous Stamp Act, passed by parliament in 1756, laying a tax on all written instruments, as deeds, notes, etc., and declaring all writings on unstamped materials void, roused such a state of feeling in the colonies, that it was never enforced, and was repealed in 1766.

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12. The British parliament, in repealing it, however, insisted upon the right which they claimed of binding the colonies in all cases whatsoever, and the next year passed an act imposing duties upon glass, painters' colours, and tea. Again the indignant voice of the colonists was heard protesting against this arbitrary measure. To enforce this obnoxious act, however, the government established a custom-house at Boston, and stationed two British regiments at the same point.

13. These, together with other arbitrary and tyrannical measures, roused the high-toned spirit of the American people, and most serious and open collisions soon occurred between the people and the insolent soldiery. Such was the stern and fixed opposition to the designs of the government, that, at length, in 1770, parliament repealed all the duties, except the one of three pence per pound on tea, thereby merely intending to show that they did not relinquish the right which they claimed. But the Americans were not to be deceived, and determined to resist taxation in every shape. The years 1771 and 1772 passed without anything important. In 1773 the people of New York and Philadelphia sent back to England the tea ships which had arrived at those cities; but at Boston a number of persons, disguised as Indians, boarded the tea ships, and threw their cargoes into the harbour.

14. In consequence of these events, parliament, in 1774, passed other severe acts, one of which was directed in particular against Boston. It was called the "Boston Port Bill," by which all intercourse with that town by water was prohibited. The same year General Gage, commander of the British forces in America, arrived in Boston with a commission as Governor of Massachusetts, and he was followed by two more British regiments, with artillery and large quantities of military stores.

15. Events were now drawing to a crisis. The Americans saw and felt the menacing attitude of the government; they saw and felt the weighty respon-

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sibility imposed upon them. But they also saw and felt the justice of their cause, and determined to maintain it before the world, prepared, with bold and resolute hearts, to meet the great emergency which was rapidly approaching.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER II.

1. What is said of the Anglo-American colonies? What is said of their treatment of the Indians? What was another fruitful source of disquiet?
2. What is said of the French governors of Canada? What efforts were made by the English colonists?
3. What is said of the colonies after the peace of Utrecht? What occurred in 1744, in 1745, and in 1748?
4. What occurred after this? What was the claim of the French to the lands on the Ohio? What exertions were made by them during the peace?
5. What happened in the meantime, and what course was taken by the French?
6. What was the result? What was the action of the French commandant at Fort Duquesne? When did this event occur, and what followed it?
7. Of what war was this the commencement? What marked its opening?
8. What rendered the year 1755 memorable?
9. What is said of the campaigns of 1756 and 1757, and what produced a change? What occurred in 1758 and the year following? What closed the war? Who were the most distinguished English generals? Who the leading French general?
10. What is said of the colonies after the war, and the designs of the British government?
11. How was the first step taken for this purpose met? What was the effect of the Stamp Act?
12. What was insisted upon by parliament in repealing the act, and what was done the next year? What was the effect of this measure? What was done to enforce it?
13. What was the effect of these arbitrary proceedings? What was done by parliament in consequence of the opposition? What is said of the years 1771 and 1772? What happened, in 1773, at New York, Philadelphia, and Boston?

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14. What course did parliament pursue in consequence, in 1774? What happened the same year at Boston?
15. What is said of the aspect of affairs at this juncture, and the sentiments and determination of the Americans?

## CHAPTER III.

### THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

*From the Commencement of Hostilities, in* 1775, *to the Recognition of the Independence of the United States, in* 1783.

1. It having become apparent, from the attitude assumed by the government, that coercive measures had been resolved upon, the Americans determined to call a congress of the different colonies, to devise means of asserting and defending their rights against the encroachments of Great Britain. This plan, originating in Massachusetts, was speedily adopted by all the colonies, except Georgia; and the delegates met at Philadelphia, on the 5th of September, 1774. The assembly, consisting of fifty-five members, was styled the Continental Congress; and after its organization, it published, in the name of the colonies, a declaration of rights, and resolved to suspend all commercial intercourse between Great Britain and the colonies, which course caused great sensation in both countries.

2. These proceedings being laid before parliament, the bold attitude of the Americans was treated with contempt. Massachusetts was declared in a state of rebellion, and the army in Boston, early in the year 1775, was increased to 10,000 men—a force which Great Britain, confident of her own immense strength and the weakness of the colonies, deemed sufficient to crush every effort in America. But the patriots, undismayed, continued with energy to enroll men and collect military stores.

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3. In April, 1775, General Gage sent a body of troops, under Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, to seize some military stores which had been collected at Concord, in Massachusetts. On the morning of the 19th of April, the troops being on their march to execute this order, arrived at the town of Lexington, where they found about seventy men collected together under arms. Major Pitcairn insultingly bade them disperse; and upon their refusing to do so, discharged his pistol and ordered his men to fire. A brief but fierce conflict ensued, in which eight Americans were killed and several wounded. This was the first blood which was shed in the revolutionary contest. The troops proceeded to Concord, and destroyed some military stores; but, upon their return, found the whole country in arms, and, with immense loss, were obliged to fight their way back to Boston.

4. The blood spilled at Lexington roused every patriot in America into activity. The forts, magazines, and arsenals throughout the colonies were seized for the use of the Americans; regular forces were immediately organized; a considerable army was collected in the vicinity of Boston; and expeditions were sent to Ticonderoga and Crown Point, which resulted in the securing of these important posts.

5. In May, 1775, the second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia, and adopted the name of the United Colonies. The same month, Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with large reinforcements of British troops, arrived at Boston. The Americans determined, if possible, to dislodge the British forces in Boston, and for this purpose took possession of an eminence called Bunker's Hill, on which, in one night, the 16th of June, they erected breastworks. Day light revealed them to the British still at their labour; and they still continued their work, notwithstanding the fierce cannonading directed against them from the British ships and batteries. General Howe deter-

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mined upon driving the Americans, who were about 1,500 strong, from their position, and advanced against them with 3,000 regular troops. The British were received with a most deadly fire by the Americans, who twice drove back their enemies with terrible loss. Owing, however, to the failure of ammunition, the patriots, after a desperate struggle, were at last obliged to retreat. The British loss in this celebrated battle was 1,054; that of the Americans, 453; and among those who fell on the side of the latter, was the lamented General Warren. During the battle, the British barbarously fired and burned to the ground the neighbouring village of Charlestown, consisting of about 400 houses.

6. Congress, in the meantime, acted with vigour, and the whole of the thirteen colonies united in the Articles of Confederation. With a happy foresight, they selected George Washington as the commander-in-chief of the American forces. This truly great and good man, whose lofty character, sound judgment, and pure principles, combined with a mind of rare capacity, inspired the patriots with the highest confidence, accepted the responsible station to which he was called, and immediately entered upon the duties of the office. He arrived at Cambridge on the 2nd of July, 1775, and there established his head-quarters.

7. Towards the close of the year 1775, a gallant attempt was made by the Americans to take possession of Canada. The chief command of the army sent for this purpose devolved upon General Richard Montgomery, one of the many noble spirits whose actions illustrate the history of the Revolution. Having taken Fort Chamble and St. John's, Montgomery advanced upon Montreal, which city surrendered without resistance; and thence he moved rapidly towards Quebec. Before the latter city, Montgomery was reinforced, in November, by about 1,000 men, under Colonel Benedict Arnold, a brave, but unprincipled officer. A well-concerted plan for the pur-

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pose of carrying the strongly fortified city of Quebec by assault, was resolved on; and before daylight, on the 31st of December, amidst a heavy snow-storm, the attack was made. The resistance was fierce and bloody; but everything promised victory to the Americans, until the gallant Montgomery fell. After that lamentable event, they were defeated at all points; and the Americans shortly after evacuated Canada.

8. Whilst the ill-fated expedition to Canada was in progress, Washington had invested Boston. During the winter of 1775, he determined to expel the British from that city; and for this purpose, on the 4th of March, erected a battery on Dorchester Heights, which commanded the city. The British general, Howe, having failed to dislodge the Americans from this position, was at length compelled to abandon Boston, which Washington entered triumphantly, on the 17th of March.

9. About this time the Americans began to be influenced by new views. Hitherto they had contended merely for constitutional liberty under the British crown; but now their unexpected union, their enthusiasm, and the hostile measures of the British government, expanded the minds of their leaders, and stimulated the spirit of the great body of the people; and independence at last became the absorbing object of the struggle. On the 6th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, made a motion in Congress which brought the question before that body, and Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and R. R. Livingstone, were appointed to draw up a Declaration of Independence. The result was the memorable document, which, being submitted by the committee to Congress, on the 4th of July, 1776, was adopted by an almost unanimous vote.

10. Having thus thrown off all allegiance, and with it all hope of reconciliation, the Americans needed all their strength and resources to maintain their bold

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and sublime position; and the events of the remainder of the year 1776, show that they felt the heavy responsibility resting upon them.

11. On the 28th of July, Fort Moultrie, erected for the defence of Charleston, South Carolina, was attacked by a British naval force, under Sir Peter Parker; but the fire from the fort, under the command of the gallant Colonel Moultrie, was so destructive, that Parker was obliged to abandon the attempt.

12. Washington, after compelling General Howe to leave Boston, removed, with a large portion of his army, to New York; and Howe, reinforced by a large naval armament, under the command of his brother, Lord Admiral Howe, after an ineffectual attempt to settle the differences of the belligerents by negotiation, prepared to overwhelm the American general. On the 27th August, a battle was fought on Long Island, between a place called Flatbush and Brooklyn, in which a portion of the American army, under Generals Putnam and Sullivan, was defeated. Washington, perceiving the imminent danger in which he was placed by the unfortunate issue of this engagement, determined to abandon Long Island; and, accordingly, on the night of the 29th of August, effected, under cover of a thick fog, an admirable retreat in the face of the British army, which lay only a quarter of a mile distant.

13. The British, flushed with success, followed up their victory. New York was evacuated by the Americans; an indecisive but bloody engagement took place at White Plains, on the 28th of October; Fort Washington, on the Hudson, was reduced by the British; and Washington, having crossed the Hudson, retreated through New Jersey, by Newark, New Brunswick, Princeton, and Trenton. Thence he crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania, being all the time closely pursued by the British under Lord Cornwallis, who, on reaching the Delaware, stayed his course, and the British army went into winter quarters.

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14. The prospects of the Americans were now most gloomy. The late disastrous events had disheartened the friends of liberty; the army, destitute of every comfort, had become greatly reduced, and ruin to the cause and all engaged in it appeared inevitable. But Washington's high soul remained firm and unquailing amidst this terrible state of affairs, and he determined to arouse the drooping hopes of his country by striking a bold and effectual blow. He resolved to surprise the British forces in their winter quarters, and for this purpose, on Christmas night (25th December, 1776), with a portion of his army, he crossed the Delaware, though obstructed by floating masses of ice, and fell upon the enemy at Trenton, defeated them, and took 1,000 prisoners. He then advanced to Princeton, where, on the 3rd of January, he defeated another body of British troops.

15. These brilliant successes revived the spirits of the Americans, and renewed their confidence in their general, whilst the hopes of the British were proportionately abated. Reinforcements came into Washington's army from all quarters, and he was therefore better prepared for vigorous operations in the spring of 1777.

16. (1777.) During the spring of this year, Washington, by his masterly manœuvres, prevented the enemy, though vastly superior in force, from advancing to Philadelphia by land; and Howe was compelled to change his plans. He sailed for the Chesapeake, landed at the head of Elk, and thence marched upon Philadelphia. Washington, in order to defeat the movement, interposed his forces. The two armies met, on the 11th of September, on the banks of the Brandywine, where a bravely contested battle was fought, which ended in the retreat of the Americans; and Philadelphia being open to the approach of the British, was immediately afterwards taken by Howe. Among the wounded on the American side, at the battle of the Brandywine, was the gallant young Mar-

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quis de Lafayette, who had a short time before left France, and entered the American service as a volunteer. He was appointed a major-general, and was eminently distinguished throughout the war.

17. Upon the taking of Philadelphia by Howe, the greater portion of his army was quartered at Germantown. On the 4th of October an attack was made by Washington on the troops at that point; but, from accidental causes, his well-planned attempt failed, and he was repulsed with considerable loss. After this the British army went into winter quarters.

18. During the progress of these events in the middle states, the operations in the north were most important. In the month of June, a British army of 7,000 men, besides Canadians and Indians, invaded the States from Canada. This army was commanded by General Burgoyne, who advanced by way of Lake Champlain towards Albany. His advance, notwithstanding the obstacles thrown in his way by the Americans, was successful until he reached the Hudson, within thirty-six miles of Albany. There, however, his successes were stayed. On the 16th of August, a detachment of the British army was defeated at Bennington, by a body of Americans under General Stark. Burgoyne, having crossed the Hudson, encamped at Saratoga, towards which point the American general, Gates, who had been recently appointed to the command of the army in the north, immediately advanced. On the 19th of September, an indecisive but obstinate engagement took place at Stillwater, Burgoyne having made an attack upon the American lines at that place. Soon after this the British army became confined to a narrow pass, cut off from provisions, and having the American army in front, a body of Americans in the rear, the Hudson on one side, and impassable woods on the other. In this distressing situation, Burgoyne, after having made one more unsuccessful attempt to extricate himself, was compelled to capitulate; and on the 17th of October, his whole army surrendered, at Saratoga, as prisoners of war, to General Gates.

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19. This event proved of signal importance to the cause of the Americans. Besides giving confidence to the people, and affording a large supply of the munitions of war, it tended powerfully to decide the negotiations for an alliance with France, which the Americans, through their commissioners, had been for some time soliciting at the court of Versailles. The negotiation was concluded in February, 1778, and treaties of alliance, amity, and commerce, were signed at Paris.

20. (1778.) During the winter of this year, Washington had been encamped at Valley Forge; and his army being poorly clad, and destitute of almost every comfort, had suffered severely; but their patriotism bore up against every privation, and they re-entered the field with unabated courage. It having been resolved by the British general, Sir Henry Clinton, who had succeeded General Howe, to concentrate his forces at New York, the army at Philadelphia left that city in June, and crossed the Delaware. Washington attempted to interrupt the movement, and on the 28th of June engaged the British forces at Monmouth. The engagement was obstinate but indecisive. After the battle the British retreated towards New York, which they reached in safety. In the meantime, in pursuance of the treaty with France, a French fleet, under the command of Count D'Estaing, with 6,000 marines and soldiers, was despatched to the assistance of the Americans, and arrived at the entrance of Delaware Bay in the month of July. Nothing further of great importance occured during this year, with the exception of an expedition sent by Clinton to Georgia, in which the British, after defeating the American forces, took possession of Savannah, on the 31st of December.

21. (1779.) This year was chiefly passed by the British in marauding excursions, particularly in the south. Pillage and destruction appeared to be their only objects, and their excesses roused a fierce spirit of resentment in the Americans. The only event of im-

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portance in the north was the capture, by the Americans, under General Wayne, of the strong fort at Stony Point, from the British. In the south, an attempt was made, by a combined force of Americans and French, to retake the city of Savannah, but it was defeated with great loss. Among the slain was the gallant Count Pulaski, a Polish officer in the American service.

22. (1780.) During this year the war was prosecuted with great vigour in the south. On the 17th of May, Charleston was reduced by Sir Henry Clinton, and South Carolina was overrun by the British forces. General Gates, having been placed in command of the southern division of the army, reached the American camp in South Carolina in July, and unfortunately resolved to fight a general action. On the 16th of August, a battle was fought near Camden, in which the Americans, under General Gates, were completely defeated by the British, under Lord Cornwallis. The American loss was severe, and among the slain was the noble Baron De Kalb, a Prussian in the American service. In July, a second French fleet, with 6,000 land troops, commanded by Count de Rochambeau, reached America. The troops disembarked, and the fleet returned to France. This year was signalized also by the infamous treachery of General Benedict Arnold, who, having been, on account of his former gallant conduct at Quebec and at Saratoga, intrusted with the important command at West Point, formed the villanous design of surrendering that post to the British. His purpose was to revenge himself on account of a reprimand from a court-martial, in consequence of certain disgraceful conduct as an officer. His design, when on the eve of being accomplished, was providentially discovered and thwarted. The traitor, however, escaped, and received, as a reward of his villany, a commission in the British army as brigadier-general. The unfortunate and amiable Major André, the British officer who acted as the medium of com-

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munication between Arnold and Clinton, having been arrested by the Americans, was convicted as a spy, and condemned and executed.

23. (1781.) The operations during this year were chiefly in the south. In January, a brilliant victory was obtained by General Morgan over the British colonel Tarlton, at the Cowpens. On the 15th of March, a battle was fought near Guildford Court house, in which the British, though with severe loss, were victorious. The Americans were commanded by General Greene, who had succeeded Gates, and the British by Cornwallis. In September, Greene obtained an important victory over the British, under Colonel Stewart, at the Eutaw Springs. Lord Cornwallis, in the meantime, having moved into Virginia, and received reinforcements, concentrated his forces at Yorktown, on York River, where he fortified himself. Washington, who had for some time deceived Clinton by threatening an attack upon New York, now suddenly quitted his camp at White Plains, marched to the south, and sat down before Yorktown, with 16,000 men, French and Americans; Chesapeake Bay was blockaded by a French fleet; and Cornwallis, galled in his position by the American batteries, and hemmed in on all sides, without hope of escape or of aid from Clinton, at length, on the 17th of October, proposed to Washington a cessation of hostilities; and on the 19th, articles of capitulation were signed, by which the British army, military stores, and shipping, were surrendered to Washington.

24. This glorious triumph was decisive of the contest, and the news was received throughout the country with emotions of inexpressible joy. Nothing of importance occurred during the remainder of the war. The British government, finding a further prosecution of the contest hopeless, was reluctantly compelled to acknowledge the independence of the United States of America, by a treaty, concluded at Versailles, on the 3rd of September, 1783, by Adams, Franklin, Jay, and



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Laurens, on the part of the Americans, and Oswald, on the part of the British.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER III.

1. What resolution was formed by the Americans at this time? How was this plan adopted and carried into effect? What was the action of the Continental Congress?
2. How were those proceedings received by parliament, and what followed? What is said of the patriots?
3. What happened in April, 1775? What occurred at Lexington, and what followed?
4. What was the effect of the battle of Lexington upon the colonies?
5. What occurred in May, 1775? What determination was formed by the Americans, and how did they proceed? Mention the particulars of the battle of Bunker's Hill. What was done by the British during the battle?
6. What is said of Congress in the meantime? Who was appointed commander-in-chief? What is said of Washington?
7. What attempt was made towards the close of 1775? Who commanded the expedition, and how was it conducted? By whom was Montgomery reinforced at Quebec? What were the circumstances of the attack on Quebec, and the result?
8. What had been done by Washington in the meantime? What determination was formed during the winter of 1775, and how was it carried out?
9. What is said of the Americans at this time, and the change in their views? Who brought the subject of independence before Congress, and what was the result?
10. What is said of the Americans after this step?
11. What occurred on the 28th of July?
12. What course was pursued by Washington after the taking of Boston? What followed? What happened on the 27th of August? What was done by Washington after this?
13. What is said of the British after the battle on Long Island? What engagements followed, and what course was taken by Washington?

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14. What is said of the prospects of the Americans at the time, and their condition? What is said of Washington at this crisis? What determination did he form, and how did he accomplish it?
15. What was the effect of these successes?
16. What events preceded the taking of Philadelphia in 1777?
17. What happened after the taking of Philadelphia?
18. What events occurred in the north during the progress of these movements? Relate the circumstances attending the invasion of Burgoyne.
19. What was the effect of Burgoyne's surrender? When was the treaty between America and France concluded?
20. What is said of Washington's army during the winter of 1778? What events occurred during the year 1778?
21. What marked the year 1780?
22. What is said of the war of 1780, and what military operations transpired? What else signalized this year? Relate the circumstances.
23. What were the operations of 1781?
24. What was the effect of the surrender of Cornwallis? How was the war ended?

## CHAPTER IV.

### *From the Recognition of American Independence, in* 1783, *to the Civil War, in* 1860.

1. THE triumphant issue of the revolutionary war, carried on against so powerful an adversary as Great Britain, exalted the character of the American people in the estimation of the world. They had, however, assumed a great responsibility, and soon found that much more than the mere establishment of their independence was needed to insure their prosperity. The expenses of the war remained to be paid; an excessive issue of paper currency had taken place, and had become greatly depreciated; and the system of confederation, which, even when supported by the

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enthusiasm attending the war, was found inefficient, now, when that impulse was removed, became a very weak bond of union. So violent were the jealousies among the states, and so slightly were the recommendations of Congress regarded, that everything indicated a dissolution of the confederacy. This alarming state of affairs demonstrated the necessity of such a change in the constitution "as would draw closer the bond of union among the states—render the republic more formidable, and give to the general government a power of internal efficacy without impairing the liberty of the citizens."

2. To effect this great object, a convention of delegates from the different states was called, and accordingly assembled at Philadelphia, in May, 1787. Washington, who, on the disbanding of the army, in 1783, had retired from public life to the quiet of his farm at Mount Vernon, appeared at this convention as a delegate from Virginia, and was appointed by that body its presiding officer. After a deliberation of four months, the Federal Constitution was agreed to by the convention, and, being accepted and ratified, in 1788, by eleven out of thirteen states, it became the constitution of the United States. North Carolina and Rhode Island, the two dissenting states, afterwards yielded their assent—the first in 1789, and the latter in 1790.

3. The new government went into operation in 1789, and George Washington was elected the first president of the United States, and John Adams vice-president. The working of the new system of government soon became apparent in the revival of trade and industry, and the general improvement of the country. In 1790, an Indian war desolated the western settlements north of the Ohio. After much fighting and bloodshed, the war was brought to a close by General Wayne, who, having completely routed the Indians, concluded a treaty of peace with them, in 1795, at Greenville. Before the conclusion of the Indian war, the French revolutionists, who were in

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the midst of the violent convulsions which they had occasioned in Europe, sought assistance from the United States; but the wise policy of Washington discouraged all proceedings tending to involve the Union in hostilities with any of the European powers. The strict neutrality which he observed, was opposed by a considerable portion of the community; and hence, in a great measure, arose the two great parties, Federalists and Republicans. In 1793, Washington was unanimously re-elected to the presidency for a second term of four years, at the expiration of which he declined a third term, and retired once more to his quiet farm. There this illustrious man, two years afterwards, on the 14th of December, 1799, departed this life, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, leaving behind him the character of the most perfect and faultless of patriots.

4. John Adams succeeded Washington in the presidency, in 1797. During his term of office serious difficulties and actual hostilities arose between the United States and France, growing out of the refusal of the former to take part in the revolutionary struggles of the latter. These difficulties, however, were amicably adjusted in a few months. Many of the measures of Mr. Adams' administration met with much opposition. Some of these were the establishment of a standing army, the imposition of a direct tax, and the enactment of the "Alien and Sedition Laws."

5. Thomas Jefferson succeeded Mr. Adams, in 1801, having been elected by the Republican party. During the first term of his administration, the United States increased rapidly in prosperity and wealth. Mr. Jefferson was re-elected for a second term, in 1805. In 1807, the war then raging in Europe, between Great Britain and France, assumed an aspect that threatened to draw the United States into the vortex. The Berlin decree—directed against English commerce by Napoleon—having called forth the British orders in

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council, which in turn provoked the Milan decree from Napoleon, excessively annoyed and interfered with the commerce of the United States, which claimed all the rights of a strict neutrality. In 1808, the American Congress laid a general embargo on foreign commerce, which, being removed in 1809, was followed by an act forbidding intercourse with France and Great Britain. Besides this there was another cause of provocation on the part of Great Britain, which was keenly felt. This was the unjustifiable impressment of American seamen by British men-of-war, and the assumption by Great Britain of the right to search American vessels. In the midst of this irritating state of affairs, Mr. Jefferson's second term expired.

6. James Madison succeeded Mr. Jefferson, in 1809, and pursued the same line of policy which marked the administration of his predecessor. The restrictions upon commerce continued until 1812; up to which period every attempt towards an amicable adjustment had proved abortive, and the causes of complaint against Great Britain continued to increase. At length, on the 1st of June, 1812, the president recommended to Congress a declaration of war against Great Britain. The bill for this purpose passed both houses of Congress with a considerable majority, and hostilities immediately after commenced. The operations of the American land forces during the first year of the war were unsuccessful. An army under General Hull, after vainly attempting to penetrate into Canada, was disgracefully surrendered by that officer to the British, on the 12th of August. General Van Rensselaer made a second attempt, but was defeated at Queenstown, in November, and compelled to surrender. But whilst the operations on land were thus unfortunate, the most brilliant success attended the American flag on the ocean. In August, the frigate Constitution, under Captain Hull, captured the British frigate Guerriere; in October, the frigate United States, under Decatur, took the British frigate Macedonia; in November,

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the British sloop Frolic was taken by the American sloop Wasp, under Captain Jones; and in December, the Constitution, under Banbridge, captured the British frigate Java. In all these engagements the British sailors acted with their accustomed bravery.

7. (1813.) Alternate victory and defeat attended the American arms during this year. In January a detachment of Americans, under General Winchester, was defeated by the British and Indians, under General Proctor, at Frenchtown, on the River Raisin. In April, the American general, Pike, took York, in Upper Canada, but was killed by the explosion of a mine. In May, an attack was made upon Sacketts Harbour by the British, under Sir George Prevost, who was repulsed with great loss by the Americans, under General Brown. In the same month, Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans, under General Boyd. On the 10th of September, the American commodore, Perry, obtained a complete and brilliant victory over the British squadron on Lake Erie, and captured all their vessels, and in October, the American general, Harrison, having crossed over to Canada, defeated and dispersed the British army, under Proctor, at the battle of the Thames. In this battle the celebrated Indian chief, Tecumseh, was slain. On the ocean the British met with greater success than during the preceding year. In February, the Hornet, under Lawrence, captured the British sloop Peacock; in June, the Chesapeake, under Lawrence, was taken by the British frigate Shannon; in August, the sloop Argus was captured by the British sloop Pelican; and, in September, the British brig Boxer was taken by the Enterprise.

8. (1814.) The operations of this year were marked by several brilliant victories on the side of the Americans. On the 5th of July, the Americans, under General Brown, defeated the British, under General Drummond, at Chippewa. On the 25th of the same month, the American generals, Brown and Scott, over-

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threw the British forces, under Drummond and Riall, at Bridgewater. Shortly after, the British were severely repulsed in an attack upon Fort Erie. On the 24th of August, a British army, under General Ross, having landed about forty miles from Washington city, defeated the Americans, under General Winder at Bladensburg, entered Washington, burnt the capitol and other public buildings, and retired. Early in September, General Ross made a similar attempt on Baltimore, but his army was repulsed, and he himself slain. On the 11th of September, the British naval force on Lake Champlain was completely defeated by the American squadron, of inferior force, under Commodore Macdonough; and, on the same day, the British land forces, under Sir George Prevost, were repulsed at Plattsburgh by the Americans, under General Macomb. On the ocean the American flag sustained its brilliant reputation. The frigate Essex was taken by two British vessels, and the President by a squadron; while the capture, by the Americans, of the British vessels, the Epervier, the Avon, the Reindeer, the Cayane, the Levant, and the Penguin, added new lustre to the glory of the American navy.

9. (1815.) Negotiations for peace between great Britain and the United States had now been in progress for some time; and, in fact, before the close of the year 1814, a treaty was signed, December 24, at Ghent. But, during the progress of these negotiations, a large army, under the British general, Sir Edward Pakenham, penetrated Louisiana, and advanced against New Orleans. The Americans, under General Andrew Jackson, threw up strong works in the neighbourhood of the city for its defence, and there awaited the British army, which, on the 8th of January, made a furious assault. The Americans were completely victorious, the British army being cut to pieces, and their commander slain. This was the last important event of the war, the joyful news of peace having put an end to further hostilities.

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10. Mr. Madison, having filled the office of president for two terms, was succeeded, in 1817, by James Monroe, whose administration, during two terms, was quiet and prosperous. He announced the determination of his government to resist any interference of a European power in the affairs of the South American States: hence what is termed the Monroe Doctrine.

11. John Quincy Adams succeeded Mr. Monroe, in 1825. His administration of four years presents nothing of general importance.

12. He was succeeded, in 1829, by General Andrew Jackson, whose administration was signalized by his hostility to the United States Bank, an institution which—its charter having expired—he succeeded in putting down. He held the presidency for two terms.

13. He was succeeded by Martin Van Buren, in 1837. This administration continued the policy of Jackson, and was signalized by the commencement of a protracted and expensive war with the Indians in Florida, and treaties with the Sioux Indians and the Winnebagoes, by which the United States, acquired the Indian titles to large portions of land east of the Mississippi.

14. General William Henry Harrison succeeded Mr. Van Buren, in March, 1841, but had held the office only one month, when he died, on 4th April, and was succeeded, in virtue of his office, by John Tyler, who had been elected vice-president. The administration of Mr. Tyler greatly disappointed those who had elected him, as he vetoed almost all the measures which they advocated, and for which they had struggled.

15. James K. Polk succeeded Mr. Tyler, in 1845. This administration was signalized by disputes between Great Britain and the United States, touching the boundaries of Oregon territory, by the annexation of the republic of Texas to the United States, and by a war with Mexico. The Oregon question was settled by negotiation and compromise, early in 1846 establish-

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ing the northern boundary of the American claim on the 49th parallel of north latitude. Texas was annexed to the United States in 1845, and the Mexican war commenced in May, 1846.

16. The Mexican war was a consequence of the annexation of Texas. Texas had been a province of Mexico, and having thrown off allegiance to that nation she declared herself independent, on the 2nd of March, 1836, and, struggling successfully through a revolutionary war, established a republic. Subsequently, finding it their interest, the people of Texas sought to enter the American Union, and in 1845 obtained their wish. Against this measure, Mexico, which had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, loudly protested, and declared, as the republic was annexed to the United States, with boundaries which did not originally belong to that province, and included considerable territory which in no event could be justly claimed, that any attempt on the part of the United States to take possession of same would be considered a just cause of war. The annexation of Texas Proper, without the disputed territory, might have been effected without any serious consequences, but the occupation of that territory Mexico determined to resist. The disputed territory lay between the Nueces and the Rio Grande. In September, 1845, General Zachary Taylor, under orders from President Polk, crossed the Nueces with an "army of occupation," planted the American flag within the disputed boundary, and subsequently, in pursuance of further orders, moved across the disputed territory to the extreme limit of the boundary on the north bank of the Rio Grande, opposite to the Mexican city of Matamoras, which point he reached on the 28th of March, 1846. The consequence was, that a Mexican army crossed the Rio Grande for the purpose of dislodging the Americans from their position, and hostilities commenced.

17. The stirring events which followed shed brilliant lustre upon the American arms. No war up to that

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time presented such a rapid and dazzling series of victories, uninterrupted by a single defeat. The battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, and Buena Vista, were fought by the Americans, under General Taylor, with fearful odds against them; but in all they were victorious. In the battle of Buena Vista, fought on the 22nd of February, 1847, General Taylor, with a force mostly of volunteers, consisting of about 4,000 men, defeated a picked army of 20,000 Mexicans, commanded by their celebrated general, Santa Anna. A short time previous to this, Colonel Doniphan, commanding the Missouri volunteers in New Mexico, defeated the Mexicans in the battle of Sacramento, and took the city of Chihuahua. The same brilliant results attended the standard of the southern branch of the American army in Mexico, under the command of General Winfield Scott. The campaign under that veteran commander commenced with the taking of Vera Cruz and the famous castle of San Juan d'Ulloa, which was followed by a march towards the city of Mexico. During that march the battles of Cerro Gordo, the occupation of Puebla, and the battles of Molino del Rey, Contreras, Chapultepec, and Churubusco, took place. In all of these the Americans were completely victorious. The last-mentioned battles were fought during the month of September, 1847, in the immediate vicinity of the city of Mexico, where the Mexicans, under Santa Anna, made a desperate struggle. General Scott entered the city in triumph, on the 15th of September, 1847. This was the last important event of the war. Immediately afterwards, the American commissioner and the Mexican government entered into negotiations for peace; and the war was at length closed by a treaty, which, under the circumstances, was advantageous in its terms to Mexico. That country, however, by the treaty, ceded a considerable portion of her territory to the United States, which thence became possessed of California, which, from the discovery of its apparently inexhaustible gold

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mines, has since risen to be a place of such vast importance; and the principal city of which, San Francisco, bids fair, at no distant day, to rival the most prosperous of the Atlantic cities of America.

18. In 1849, Mr. Polk was succeeded in the presidency by General Taylor, who, having held the office little more than one year, died in the summer of 1850, and was succeeded by the vice-president, Millard Filmore, in virtue of his office.

19. A good deal of excitement was produced, in 1850 and 1851, by the Filibustering expedition of Lopez against Cuba; and a few years later (1857–1860) similar expeditions by Walker against the states of Central America gave a great deal of trouble. In 1852, the existence of a wide-spread association, called the Lone Star Society, became known, its object being to extend the institutions and power of the United States over the whole Western Hemisphere, both continent and islands. The society was organized in 1848, and the news of its discovery created great excitement in England.

20. At this period, the Union was making a rapid progress over the vast continent, and new states and territories were added every other day. California was admitted as a free state in 1850, and New Mexico and Utah as territories. In 1853 and 1854, the territories of Washington, Nebraska, and Kansas, were organized; and in 1858 and 1859, Minnesota and Oregon were erected into states. In 1853, and for a few succeeding years, the party called Know-Nothings brought a good deal of disgrace upon American society, their object being to encourage native Americans exclusively, and to put down the Catholic religion. Their proceedings, for this latter purpose, such as attacks on Catholic churches and religious houses, caused several serious riots. In 1857, Mr. Buchanan was elected president by the Democratic party, and an army was sent into the Great Salt Lake Valley to reduce the Mormons to submission.

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### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IV.

1. What was the state of affairs in America after the close of the revolutionary war?
2. What was done to remedy these evils, and with what result?
3. When did the new government commence, and who was the first president? What was the effect of the new constitution? What events occurred during the administration of Washington? What is said of Washington after the end of his second term of office?
4. Who succeeded Washington in his presidency? What occurred in this administration?
5. Who succeeded Adams? What is said of the United States during Jefferson's administration? What events transpired?
6. Who succeeded Mr. Jefferson? What is said of affairs up to 1812? What occurred on the 1st of June, 1812, and what followed? What were the land and naval operations with which the war opened?
7. What is said of the American arms in 1813? Relate the events which took place during that year.
8. What is said of the operations of 1814? Relate the events which occurred.
9. What had been in progress for some time, and what took place on the 24th of December, 1814? What occurred during the progress of the negotiation? What followed?
10. Who succeeded Mr. Maddison in the presidency? What was the Monroe Doctrine?
11. Who succeeded Mr. Monroe?
12. Who succeeded Mr. Adams? What signalized General Jackson's administration?
13. Who succeeded Jackson? What is said of his administration?
14. Who succeeded Mr. Van Buren? What occurred a month afterwards, and what is said of Mr. Tyler's administration?
15. Who succeeded Mr. Tyler? What signalized Mr. Polk's administration?

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16. What caused the Mexican War? Relate the circumstances which led to hostilities with Mexico.
17. What is said of the events which followed? What battles were fought under General Taylor, and with what result? What is said of the battle of Buena Vista? What occurred a short time previous to this? What is said of the army under General Scott? What marked the campaign under that officer? What battles were fought, and with what results? What at length closed the war? Of what did the United States become possessed? What is said of California?
18. When did General Taylor become president? When did he die? Who succeeded him?
19. What expeditions took place about this time? What was the Lone Star Society?
20. What new states and territories were added to the Union about this time? Who were the Know-Nothings, and what mischief did they effect? Who became president in 1857?

## CHAPTER V.

### *The Civil War—from* 1860 *to the Present Time.*

1. THE date of 1860 brings us to the most critical epoch in the history of America. No country in the world could boast of a progress so rapid, so vast, so prosperous, as that which had been made by the United States within the space of a single generation; but there were elements of disunion within it which threatened its ruin. The principal of these elements was the question of slavery. In the Southern States, which are all agricultural, and have an excessively warm climate, it was held that the labour of negroes was indispensable; that the negroes would not work unless forced to do so as slaves; and that the chief property of the Southern planters consisted in the

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slaves whom they had purchased at great cost. On the other hand, the Northern States were chiefly commercial; slavery had already been abolished in the greater number of them; and they demanded its abolition throughout the Union. Besides this, there was a discordancy of interests on many points between the Northern and Southern States; and, throughout the Union generally, the people were arrayed against each other in the two great political parties of Republicans and Democrats, somewhat resembling the Whigs and Tories in England and Ireland.

2. In 1860, the Republican party carried the election of Abraham Lincoln as president, against the Democrats, and political agitation rose to an extreme pitch in the Southern States. The great question now was, not merely slavery or anti-slavery, but the actual dissolution of the Union; and the two great contending parties were known as Unionists or Federals, on one side, and Secessionists or Confederates, on the other. South Carolina was the first state to secede from the Union (December 20).

3. President Buchanan, who remained in office until the 4th of March, 1861, the day on which the official year commences, announced his intention to enforce the laws of the Union in South Carolina; but several other states seceded in rapid succession at the commencement of the year—Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, had all withdrawn from the Union before the end of January; and delegates from the seceded states assembled (February 9) at Montgomery, in Alabama, to adopt a constitution for the Confederate States of America, as the seceders now styled themselves. Mr. Jefferson Davis was chosen president of the Confederation; and a conference, which met at Washington for the restoration of peace, having failed in its object, the Confederates, under General Beauregard, bombarded Fort Sumpter, where a Federal force had been left at the entrance to Charleston harbour, and compelled the garrison to

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surrender (April 13). It was here the first shot was fired in the war. Five days later, Virginia, the most powerful of the Southern States, joined the confederation, and Norfolk Navy Yard, in that state, was seized by the seceders; and July 20th, the Confederate Congress assembled at Richmond, Virginia, which continued to the end to be the Confederate capital. Several minor conflicts had taken place in the meantime; but on the 21st of July the first important battle was fought, at Bull Run, near Manassas Junction, in Virginia, where the Federal army was seized with a sudden panic, and fled in utter confusion.

4. Thus commenced one of the most deplorable, sanguinary, hard-fought, and destructive wars of ancient or of modern times. From the tremendous efforts made on both sides, it has been compared to a war of giants. It was a war of desolation, which threatened to end only with the utter extinction of one of the contending parties. On the side of the Federals or Northerns, there were boundless resources both of money and men; but on that of the Southerns or Confederates, there appeared to be greater devotedness and desperation, and also better generals. The sympathies of Europe were with the South; but that arose to a great extent from a sympathy with aristocracy, and from a wish, on the part of European states, to see the vast power of America shivered to pieces, as it was then confidently expected it would be.

5. Without intermission, for fully four years—that is, from April, 1861, to the abandonment of Petersburgh and Richmond, in April, 1865—this destructive war was carried on; and during that time the battles were so numerous, that even their names would exceed our limits. Sometimes one battle would last for several days together, the work of carnage being resumed every morning, to be interrupted only by the darkness of the ensuing night. Such was the battle of Pittsburg Landing, which lasted two days;

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the battle of Murfreesborough, three days; and the fighting at the Chickahominy, before Richmond, which was resumed every day for seven days, beginning June 25th, 1862. In those seven days the Federal army alone lost 15,300 men in killed, wounded, and missing. The most remarkable sieges during the war were those of Memphis, Vicksburg, Port Hudson, Charleston, Atlanta, Petersburgh, and Richmond. Amongst the generals who distinguished themselves most were M'Clellan, Grant, Banks, Meade, Hooker, Butler, and Sherman, on the side of the Federals; and "Stonewall" Jackson, Lee, Beauregard, Morgan, Forrest, Longstreet, Ewell, and Hood, on that of the Confederates.

6. The operations of the war were carried on simultaneously over an extent of two or three thousand miles, and the Northern army alone for a long time greatly exceeded a million of men in the field. The numbers of killed and wounded during the war will never be ascertained with any degree of accuracy, but they are to be reckoned by hundreds of thousands. In this war, also, some of the most important contrivances in naval warfare were invented and employed. Thus, the exploits of the Confederate iron-plated steamer, Merrimac, astonished the world, and her encounter with the Federal floating battery, Monitor, was one of the most memorable occurrences in the war; while the Confederate privateer, Alabama, swept the ocean, destroying American commerce for a long time, until she was at length sunk by the Federal cruiser, Kersage, on the coast of France.

7. The war was at length terminated by the entire exhaustion of the Confederate States, the army which had so desperately defended the Confederate capital, Richmond, under General Lee, having surrendered (April 9th, 1865); and, as a closing scene, President Lincoln, who, having been re-elected, had entered on his second term of office, was shot in a theatre at Washington (April 14th), and was succeeded by Vice



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President Johnson. Slavery had now been abolished throughout the whole of the United States, but a contest, much to be regretted, ensued between the new president and the Congress, the latter insisting on certain hard terms to be imposed on the Southern States as conditions of re-admitting them to the Union, while the president would only sanction more lenient measures. The president was impeached and brought to trial, but the decision of the court was equivalent to an acquittal.

8. The progress which America has made since the conclusion of the war, affords a better evidence of the vast resources of that great country than even the gigantic efforts of the terrific struggle itself. Commerce had been ruined, the railroads destroyed, taxation raised to a fearful pitch, and an enormous public debt accumulated; but the people set about repairing the damage manfully; and, except in cases of individual loss and suffering, all traces of the war will soon be effaced, and the United States become much more powerful and formidable than ever.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER V.

1. Describe the state of interests and parties in America previous to the late war.
2. Who was elected president in 1860? and by what party? What turn did the question at issue now take? What were the great parties now called? What state first seceded from the Union?
3. What states next seceded? Where did their delegates first meet? Whom did they make their president? Where did the war commence? What events followed immediately after?
4. What was the general character of the war? What ideas about it were entertained in Europe?
5. What was the duration of the war? Mention some of the most remarkable battles and sieges. Who were the most distinguished generals on the Northern side and on the Southern side?
6. What ships became remarkable in the war

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7. When did General Lee surrender? What then happened to President Lincoln? Who succeeded him? What had become of slavery? What contest arose between the new president and the Congress?
8. What has been the progress of America since the war?

## CHAPTER VI.

### MEXICO AND THE SOUTH AMERICAN STATES.

1. After the conquest of Mexico by Cortez, in 1521, already noticed, that country became a province of Spain, under the government of a viceroy. Nothing of general interest occurred in its history until the year 1808, when, upon the abdication of Charles IV. of Spain, the mass of the inhabitants asserted their right to freedom, and, being opposed by the Spanish authorities, openly rebelled in the year 1810, under the guidance of Hidalgo and Morelos, two Mexican priests. In 1813, a congress declared Mexico independent, and a bloody guerilla warfare ensued. In 1821, Iturbide, a powerful adherent of the Spanish cause, suddenly declared in favour of the insurgents, and ably advocated an independent constitutional monarchy. This was the deathblow to the power of Spain in Mexico. A national congress was formed, which elected Iturbide Emperor of Mexico, with the title of Augustin. He had not long exercised the power thus conferred, before his arbitrary measures aroused a stern opposition among the people, who compelled him to abdicate, and, upon the ruins of his throne, established a constitution, in most respects similar to that of the United States. Iturbide, having been arrested in an attempt to regain his power, was afterwards put to death, 1824.

2. Since that time Mexico has been a prey to the most deplorable anarchy; so much so, that in forty years which ensued there were at least fifty revolutions or changes of government, and presidents and

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dictators have sometimes been deposed and succeeded each other two or three times in a single year. The property of the Church was confiscated, religious establishments overturned, the bishops expelled, and life and property placed in constant insecurity. In 1836, the province of Texas threw off the Mexican yoke, and joined the United States. In 1846 and 1848, Mexico was overrun by an United States army, and compelled to surrender some of her richest provinces. In 1861, England, France, and Spain entered into a convention to restore order in Mexico, and despatched armies for the purpose; but England and Spain soon retired from the undertaking, and France, persevering, sent a powerful army, which took possession of the capital and other principal cities. Under these auspices the friends of order in Mexico decreed the adoption of a hereditary constitutional monarchy, and Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria, was induced to accept the government, with the dignity of Emperor. The Republican party, at the head of which was President Juarez, still, however, possessed considerable power, and civil war continued. The French army, when the term of the occupation had expired, was withdrawn, and the Emperor Maximilian was, after a series of disasters, captured by the Juarists at Queretaro, and shot (June 19th, 1867). To complete the tragedy, his unhappy empress, who had returned to Europe, lost her mind.

3. The general features of the history of the Spanish provinces of South America, are similar to those of Mexico. The celebrated Simon Bolivar was the chief agent in establishing the independence of the Spanish provinces of South America. In 1810, Chili and Peru revolted against the Spanish crown, and their independence was finally established in 1826. Upper Peru, in honour of Bolivar, was erected into a distinct republic, called Bolivia. In Lower Peru, the Bolivian constitution was unpopular, and Peru and Columbia were soon separated from Bolivia. The states of the Rio

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de la Plata, long dependent on Peru, separated themselves from that state after the revolution, and formed themselves into a distinct government, styled the Argentine Republic. In 1827, a war broke out between this republic and Brazil, in reference to the possession of Uruguay, which became an independent state in 1828. Frequent wars have since then sprung up among the states bordering the River Plate, and also between these states and Brazil; and, with the latter power, a war has been carried on with various success, during the years 1867 and 1868; but, strange to say, notwithstanding this constant state of warfare, the great commercial cities of Buenos Ayres and Monte Video have continued to progress and flourish.

4. Brazil, which, as we have seen, was discovered by the Portuguese navigator Cabras, was held subject to the crown of Portugal until 1822, when the connexion was dissolved. Brazil was erected into an independent empire, and Don Pedro, the crown prince of Portugal, was declared emperor. Don Pedro abdicated in 1831, in favour of his son.

5. Paraguay was first brought into prominence by the devoted zeal of the Jesuit missionaries. A number of these pious men, having penetrated into that barbarous region, converted immense numbers of the natives to Christianity; and by their wise and Christian policy, established a government there, so simple, mild, and pure in its form, and so happy in its influence upon the character and condition of the people, that Paraguay, under their sway, has been compared to a paradise. Unjust prejudices and Spanish avarice, however, compelled the missionaries to abandon this scene of their pious labours, in 1768, and the noble fabric they had raised fell to pieces. Paraguay, unnoticed after this until the period of the revolutions, which convulsed all the states of South America, was declared a republic in 1813, under two consuls. Subsequently, the chief power was entrusted to one dictator, elected for life.

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QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VI.

1. What is said of Mexico after the conquest? What happened in 1808, 1810, 1813, and 1821? What occurred after the elevation of Iturbide, and what became of him?
2. What was the subsequent state of Mexico? What happened in 1836? and in 1846? What convention was formed in 1861? What form of government was then established? What was the fate of the Emperor Maximilian?
3. What is said of the history of the Spanish provinces of South America? What is said of Chili and Peru? Bolivia? Lower Peru? the states of the Rio de la Plata? What happened in 1827? What has been the state of things since then?
4. What is said of Brazil?
5. What first brought Paraguay into notice? What is said of the government established there by the Jesuits? What happened in 1768? What is said of Paraguay?

## CHAPTER VII.

### AUSTRALIA—TASMANIA—NEW ZEALAND.

1. THE vast island of Australia—styled a continent from its great size—together with the important islands of Tasmania and New Zealand, constitute a fifth great portion in the geographical division of the world, and became known to Europeans still more recently than America. The discovery of these great countries appears to have been the result, not of calculation and design, as that of America by Columbus, but of the ordinary enterprise of navigators. The coast of Australia is supposed to have been seen by the Portuguese before the year 1540, but no record of that discovery exists, and we only know that its northern portion was sighted by the Dutch in March, 1606, and by the Spaniards, in June of the same year;

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that Tasmania and New Zealand were discovered by the Dutch navigator, Tasman, in 1642; and that these latter islands were neglected and supposed to belong to a southern continent, until New Zealand was circumnavigated by Captain Cook, in 1769-1770.

2. The Dutch alone seemed to pay any attention to Australia for a great many years. They called it New Holland—a name which it retained until very recently: and if we look at a map published so lately as even sixty or seventy years ago, we will find a very considerable portion of its coast still left wholly blank, no knowledge of its outline being then obtained. Dampier was the first Englishman who visited Australia, in 1686; and Captain Cook, who called the locality where he landed Botany Bay, took possession of the country in the name of England, in 1770, and called it New South Wales.

3. The favourable report which Cook made on his return home, induced the English government to establish the colony of Sydney as a penal settlement, in 1788. The site of the settlement was changed from that first chosen at Botany Bay, and the first colonists consisted of 558 male and 218 female convicts, with about 200 soldiers and their wives and children. Two years later the colonists were near perishing by famine, owing to the loss of a store-ship with provisions; no proper effort having been made to cultivate the land and produce food. Such was the recent and humble commencement of the great and wealthy country now divided into so many provinces or colonies. In 1821, the population amounted only to 29,783, of whom three-fourths were convicts.

4. In 1802, Port Philip, with the coast lying westward, was discovered, but was not colonized until 1835. It now constitutes the important and flourishing colony of Victoria. The colony of Western Australia, or Swan River, was established in 1829; South Australia was erected into a province in 1834, and into a separate colony in 1836; and it was not until 1859

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that Moreton Bay, or Queensland, was constituted a distinct colony. To these is now to be added the colony of North Australia.

5. All this time numerous efforts were made, by private and public enterprise, to explore the interior of that vast region; and among the names of the most remarkable explorers, we find those of Oxley, Cunningham, Sturt, Mitchell, Eyre, Bonney, Stokes, Scott, Gregory, Dr. Leichhart, Kennedy, Roe, Hely, Stuart, M'Kinlay, Robert O'Hara Burke, etc.

6. In 1851, extensive deposits of gold were discovered by Mr. Hargraves, at Bathurst and Wellington, in New South Wales, and other discoveries of the precious metal rapidly followed in other localities, especially in the province of Victoria. These discoveries gave a tremendous impulse to every kind of progress in Australia. In three blocks of quartz, at Murroo Creek, north of Bathurst, were found 112 lbs. of pure gold; and the Victoria nugget, found at Bendigo diggings, weighed 340 ozs. of virgin gold. The gold found at Mount Alexander and Ballarat, in Victoria, up to October, 1852, weighed 2,532,422 ozs., equal to 105 tons 10 cwt., and the gold exported up to that date amounted to £8,863,477. At the end of 1857, the total amount of gold derived from Australia had reached £66,135,484. With the gold fever, as it was called, population was immensely increased by immigration, so much so that it became six times as great in seven years. Commerce also expanded wonderfully; Melbourne and Sydney rose to great importance as capital cities; other towns grew up and flourished; and in 1855 the right of self-government, with most liberal constitutions, was conferred on all the Australian colonies. It is needless to add that those flourishing colonies long since ceased to be penal settlements. In 1853, transportation was finally abolished by the laws of England.

7. Tasmania, which had been called Van Dieman's Land by the Dutch, commenced, like New

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South Wales, as a penal settlement; and the convicts being unchecked in the beginning by any regular system of discipline, pursued a predatory life. Hostilities between them and the natives were the result, and inhuman measures of extermination were carried out against the latter. In 1814, the natives were estimated at about 5,000, and in 1858 they did not exceed sixteen individuals! Since the cessation of the convict system, the colony has rapidly progressed, and is now in a thriving condition, with a liberal system of self-government, established in 1855 and 1856.

8. The first Europeans who fixed themselves in New Zealand were Methodist missionaries (1814), and from these the natives—a fine looking, but fierce people, called Maories—acquired just enough of civilization to make them understand the use of fire-arms, and be otherwise formidable to future colonists. The New Zealand Company formed a settlement there in 1839; and the British government established the colony in 1840, making Auckland the capital. In 1843, a disastrous war with the natives commenced, and continued till 1847; and hostilities were renewed in 1860, and again in 1863, when there was some hard fighting. The Otago Settlement was founded in 1848, and the Canterbury Settlement in 1850. A free constitution was granted to the colony in 1852, and the discovery of gold fields in the Otago Settlement, though it increased the population, has rather retarded the prosperity of the colony than otherwise. With its delightful climate and fine soil, New Zealand promises a prosperous future.

### QUESTIONS TO CHAPTER VII.

1. When is Australia supposed to have been first seen? When and by whom are we sure that it was discovered? When were Tasmania and New Zealand discovered?
2. What was Australia first called? Who gave it that name? Who was the first Englishman that visited

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it? What did Captain Cook call it? and when did he take possession of it?

3. What was the first settlement founded in Australia? when was it founded? and what occurred after its foundation?
4. When was Port Philip discovered? and colonized? What is it now called? When was Western Australia established as a colony? and South Australia? and Queensland?
5. Who were the principal explorers in the interior?
6. When and where was the discovery of gold first made in Australia? What was its effect? What were the most remarkable facts in the gold discoveries? What cities rose to chief importance? When did Australia obtain a constitution?
7. What are the principal facts about Tasmania?
8. Relate the principal circumstances about New Zealand.

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# APPENDIX.

## I.—The Principal Epochs of History.

B.C.

4004 Creation of Man, according to the common computation (but 5508, according to the Alexandrine Septuagint; 5270, according to the Vatican Septuagint; 4427, according to the Samaritan computation; and 3761, according to the common Jewish reckoning).

2348 The Deluge.

1225 The Argonautic expedition.

1184 The destruction of Troy.

826 The foundation of Carthage (according to Niebuhr).

776 Beginning of the first Olympiad.

753 The foundation of Rome (according to Varro).

323 Death of Alexander the Great.

264 The first Punic War (between the Romans and Carthaginians).

149–146 Third Punic War, and destruction of Carthage.

4 The Birth of Our Saviour took place in the fourth year before the commencement of the Vulgar or Christian Era.

A.C.

284 The Era of Martyrs, or of Diocletian.

324 Constantinople founded by Constantine the Great.

622 The Hegira, or Flight of Mahomet.

800 Charlemagne proclaimed Emperor of the West.

1096 The first Crusade; 1147, the second; 1189, the third (under Richard Cœur de Lion); 1202, the fourth; 1217, the fifth; 1228, the sixth; 1248, the seventh (under S. Louis, King of France); and 1278, the eighth and last.

1492 Discovery of America.

1517 The Protestant Reformation.

1789 The French Revolution.

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## II.—Foundation of Modern States.

A.C.

754 The Ecclesiastical States originated with Pepin's donation of the Exarchate of Ravenna to the Pope.

771 France first united in one monarchy under Charlemagne.

828 England first styled a kingdom, under Egbert.

—— Denmark, Sweden, and Norway commence their lists of kings also from the ninth century.

1139 Portugal a kingdom under King Alphonso I.

1308 The Swiss League commenced.

1453 Turkish Empire in Europe founded.

1492 The Spanish monarchy consolidated on the extinction of Moorish power, under Ferdinand and Isabella, and the conquest of Navarre, in 1512.

1701 Frederick I. crowned first King of Prussia.

1721 First Emperor of Russia (Peter I.) crowned.

1774 The United States of America declared their independence; recognized by France, 1778, and by England, 1782.

1804 Austria created an archduchy, in 1453; the reigning family were Emperors of Germany, and on the abolition of that title, assumed that of Emperors of Austria, 1804.

1806 Kingdom of Holland formed out of the Batavian Republic; united to Belgium, 1813; again a distinct kingdom on the separation of Belgium, 1830.

1822 Don Pedro first Emperor of Brazil.

1830 Belgium separated from Holland; Leopold I. crowned first king, 1831.

1860 New kingdom of Italy formed under Victor Emanuel.

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## III.—The Œcumenical or General Councils.

A.C.

325 I.—Of Nice, in Asia Minor; 381 bishops; condemned Arianism; prepared the Nicene Creed.

381 II.—Of Constantinople; 150 bishops; heresy of the Macedonians condemned; addition made to the Nicene Creed.

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A.C.

431 III.—Of Ephesus; 274 bishops; S. Cyril presided for Pope Celestine I. The Blessed Virgin declared Mother of God, and Nestorius condemned; also Pelagius.

451 IV.—Of Chalcedon; 690 bishops; Eutyches and Dioscorus condemned.

553 V.—Second of Constantinople; 151 bishops; the errors of Origen and the Three Chapters condemned.

680 VI.—Third of Constantinople; 160 bishops; against the Monothelites.

787 VII.—Second of Nice; 377 bishops; regulated the veneration to be paid to holy images.

870 VIII.—Fourth of Constantinople; 102 bishops; against Photius and the Iconoclasts.

1123 IX.—First of Lateran; over 300 bishops; on the investiture of bishops, and general discipline.

1139 X.—Second of Lateran; about 1,000 bishops; for the restoration of discipline, and against Arnold of Brescia.

1179 XI.—Third of Lateran; 302 bishops; condemned the ordinations of the Antipopes; also the Vaudois, &c.

1215 XII.—Fourth of Lateran; 412 bishops, and over 800 abbots, also S. Dominic; condemned the Albigenses, &c.

1245 XIII.—First of Lyons; 140 bishops; excommunicated Frederick II.; decided on new crusade under S. Louis; granted the red hat to cardinals.

1274 XIV.—Second of Lyons; 500 bishops, 70 abbots, 1,000 doctors; defined the procession of the Holy Ghost; united the Greeks and Latins.

1311 XV.—Of Vienne, in France; 300 bishops; condemned the Templars, Beguines, &c.; established professors of eastern languages in universities, &c.

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A.C.

1431 XVIII.—Of Basle; deemed œcumenical only in some of its sessions.

1439 XIX.—Of Florence; 150 bishops; for the re-union of the Greeks and Latins. Pope Eugenius IV. presided.

1512 XX.—Fifth of Lateran; lasted five years; attended by 15 cardinals, and nearly 80 archbishops and bishops. Pope Julius II. presided.

1545 XXI.—Of Trent; lasted nearly eighteen years, under five successive popes; attended by 5 cardinal legates, 3 patriarchs, 33 archbishops, 235 bishops, 7 abbots, 7 generals of orders, 160 doctors; condemned the errors of Luther; reformed morals, &c.

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## IV.—Remarkable Battles.

B.C.

1184 Troy taken by the Greeks.

490 Marathon, } The Persians defeated by the
480 Thermopylæ, } Greeks.

334 The Granicus, } The Persians, under Darius, de-
331 Arbela, } feated by the Greeks, under Alexander the Great.

216 Cannæ; great victory of Hannibal over the Romans.

48 Pharsalia; Pompey defeated by Julius Cæsar.

31 Actium (the Empire of Rome confirmed).

A.C.

70 Jerusalem taken by Titus.

1014 Clontarf; the Danes defeated by Brian Borumha.

1066 Hastings; conquest of England by William I.

1099 Ascalon; victory of the first Crusaders over the Saracens.

1314 Edward II. defeated by Robert Bruce at Bannockburn.

1346 Cressy, } English victories in France.
1415 Agincourt, }

1429 Joan of Arc's victory at Orleans.

1485 Bosworth; Richard III. defeated, and Houses of York and Lancaster united.

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A.C.

1491 Knockdoe; Clanrickarde and Southern Irish defeated by the Earl of Kildare, aided by the Northern Irish.
1571 Lepanto; the Turks defeated by the Venetians, &c.
1598 The Blackwater or Yellow Ford; the English defeated by the Irish under Hugh O'Neill and Red Hugh O'Donnell.
1601 The Irish defeated by Mountjoy, &c., at Kinsale.
1649 Drogheda taken; great massacre by Cromwell.
1690 The Boyne, Aughrim, &c.; Irish royalists defeated by the Williamites.
1704 Blenheim; French defeated by the Allies, under Marlborough.
1709 Pultowa; Charles XII. of Sweden defeated by the Russians.
1745 Fontenoy; great French victory, in which the Irish Brigade was distinguished.
1746 Culloden; the Pretender's army defeated.
1759 Quebec, or the Plains of Abraham; Wolfe killed
1775 Lexington; first battle in the American war.
1777 Defeat of Burgoyne at Saratoga.
1798 Vinegar Hill, &c.; United Irishmen defeated.
1800 Marengo,
1805 Austerlitz,
1806 Jena,
} Great victories of Napoleon I.
1812 Moscow burnt.
1814 Toulouse; last battle of the Peninsular War.
1815 Waterloo; Napoleon's power annihilated.
1830 Algiers taken by the French.
1849 Chillianwallah; the Sikhs defeated by Lord Gough.
1849 Novara; Sardinians defeated by the Austrians.
1854 Alma, &c.,
1855 Sebastopol,
} Russians defeated by the Allies.
1857 The Indian Mutiny.
1859 Solferino; Austrians defeated by French and Sardinians.
1860–65 The Civil War in America.
1866 Sadowa; Austrians defeated by Prussians.
1867 Mentana; Garibaldi defeated by the Papal troops.

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## V.—Important Discoveries, Inventions, etc.

1250 The mariner's compass known in the Baltic.
1330 Gunpowder made by Schwarz; but known to Roger Bacon in 1260.
1444 Invention of printing with moveable types, by Guttenberg; but practised by Koster with wooden blocks in 1438.
1681 First steam-engine made by Papin; improved by Watt in 1764; and first applied generally to manufacturing purposes in 1775.
1806 First steam-boat by Fulton, tried successfully on the Hudson in America; and first steamer crossed the Atlantic in 1819.
1825 First railway line for passengers between Darlington and Stockton; and first line with locomotive engines between Liverpool and Manchester in 1830.
1837 First electric telegraph on the London and Blackwall Railway; and first submarine electric telegraph between England and France in 1849.
1840 The general penny postage introduced.

THE END.

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